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ABSTRACT

This guide provides answers to teachers' questions about Hispanic students. Its purpose is to provide a conceptual foundation for educators, and to sensitize and inform teachers of the plight of Hispanic students by making them aware of the students' historical, cultural, economic, language, and educational backgrounds. The following sections are included: (1) "Introduction"; (2) "Demographics"; (3) "Diversity in the Hispanic Community"; (4) "Literacy"; (5) "The Classroom"; (6) "The Professions: ESL & Bilingual Ed."; (7) "Culture"; (8) "Child Rearing and Parenting"; (9) "Language Acquisition"; (10) "Spanish & English: Differences"; and (11) "Grammatical Errors." Six tables and one figure are included, along with a list of 75 references. Teaching pointers on the following topics are appended: (1) "False Cognates"; (2) "Common Grammatical Errors"; and (3) "Useful Spanish Terms." (JS)

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THE HISPANIC STUDENT:

QUESTIONS & ANSWERS

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QUESTIONS & ANSWERS

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The drawing on the cover represents a Salvadoran village. It was drawn by a Salvadoran refugee who was staying at Casa Grande--a shelter in Los Angeles, California for Central American refugees.

THE HISPANIC STUDENT: QUESTIONS & ANSWERS
by Joyce Penfield

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PREFACE

The education of the rapidly increasing Hispanic population in the United States is one of the greatest issues and challenges facing American schools at all levels. Unlike other ethnic groups, Hispanic students have a lower rate of success in school. Some attribute this problem to an educational system that does not provide Hispanic students with a culturally appropriate education. In addition, segregation in the form of racial isolation, linguistic isolation, curricular segregation, and uninformed and insensitive professionals are factors that continue to cut off Hispanic students from educational opportunities and success in the classroom. These problems, accompanied by a high Hispanic birthrate and rising immigration to the United States, will continue to have a significant impact on the American population and the field of education now and in the future. These are issues that policy makers, educators, and the nation as a whole need to be concerned with and confront. There is no escaping them!

One group in particular that will continue to come face to face with Hispanics and consequently influence and mold the lives of this ethnic group are bilingual, ESL, and mainstream or content teachers. It would not be presumptuous to say that, relatively speaking, bilingual and ESL teachers may be the best trained and most adequately equipped to instruct the Hispanic student in the classroom. On the other hand, mainstream teachers, perhaps through no doing of their own, may not always know how to properly address and realize the needs of the Hispanic students(s) in their classroom. As the impetus for the book suggests, mainstream teachers are indeed experiencing great frustration when teaching Hispanic students. This book is intended for the mainstream teacher who has no training in the teaching of Hispanic students and who has little or no experience with Hispanics.

In her experience training mainstream teachers, it became quite evident to Penfield that mainstream teachers need help if they are to effectively teach the Hispanic student. The frustration exhibited by the teachers comes across in the types of questions they have often asked Penfield--questions which represent attitudes and misinformation about Hispanics, their culture, their language, how they learn, and so forth. Clearly, mainstream teachers need to concern themselves with how they can become the best they possibly can if they are to alleviate their frustrations and improve their teaching of Hispanic students.

THE HISPANIC STUDENT: QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS successfully accomplishes the goal of sensitizing and informing teachers of the plight of Hispanic students by making them aware of the students' historical, cultural, economic, language, and educational

backgrounds. Only through this enlightenment can all teachers be more responsive, sensitive, and effective. Several things make the book unique. First, Penfield addresses the concerns and questions which mainstream teachers often have about Hispanic students, about teaching of language, and about teaching and learning in general. Questions such as "Why are Hispanic children so dependent and immature?", "How can I be expected to teach Hispanic students in my mainstream class if they aren't fluent in English?" and "How is language learning different from other subects, like math, science, or social studies?" are three of the many questions often asked by mainstream teachers. Secondly, Penfield presents the questions and answers in a manner and language style that shows she understands how mainstream teachers feel and what they need to know in order to alleviate frustration and reduce anxiety for both the student and the teachers. Thirdly and most significantly, Penfield has answered and clarified the concerns and misinfromation exhibited by teachers by addressing issues affecting the human condition which are usually overlooked in teacher training programs. These issues are: child rearing, parenting, cultural differences within the Hispanic community, literacy, racism, and poverty. Such factors greatly affect why some students fail or succeed, stay in school or drop out. These issues point to the social context which determines how Hispanic students in any classroom learn or fall behind.

Penfield illustrates the issue of culture by informing the mainstream teacher of the clear differences found among the different Hispanic groups: Puerto Ricans, Cubans, Mexicans, and other Hispanic groups from the Caribbean, Central and South America. The issues of literacy and poverty are humanistically portrayed through actual case studies. Penfield's own personal teaching experiences with many different Hispanic students in the United States, Mexico, and Central America is drawn upon throughout this book. In addition to helping sensitize the mainstream teacher to the human conditon, Penfield answers and develops an awareness and practical understanding of second language acquisition and learning. She also succeeds in providing a greater understanding of the very controversial issues of bilingual and ESL education, both of which are often attacked and misunderstood by mainstream teachers.

For those teachers who have had no training in second language acquisition, who do not understand the goals of bilingual and ESL education, and who have not experienced poverty, racism, and illiteracy THE HISPANIC STUDENT: QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS is a must.

Miriam Diaz-Gilbert
Intercultural Dynamics, Inc.
Voorhees, New Jersey
July 1989

1. INTRODUCTION

Perhaps you are an elementary teacher who neither speaks a language other than English nor has lived in a non-English speaking culture. Your class is entirely native-English speaking. But today you learn that you will now have two new students in your class who come from Spanish-speaking homes and speak little English. What should you do? Where should you begin? You need answers and you need them quickly. This booklet is designed for you and millions of other teachers who face the same situation you do.

In this booklet, I have addressed the questions which teachers new to teaching the Hispanic student have asked me. Maybe your questions will be here. Hopefully, you will encounter some questions you haven't yet thought about. In most cases I have kept the very wording which teachers have posed to me in the field. Sometimes these questions reflect frustration and other times they reflect misunderstandings about Hispanic students and their culture. I am sorry if some questions seem abrasive, but since I have encountered them in my dialogue with professionals in schools and colleges, I felt it was important to state them as they were posed to me. No matter what the question is, each question is a point at which learning begins and each answer a point where understanding begins. Therefore, I am providing questions and answers about Hipanic students as a tool to extend the learning of professionals. I hope these answers help you improve your work with Hispanic students and their parents. That's what they are intended to do.

WHO IS THIS MANUAL FOR?

This manual is intended for teachers, counselors, and administrators in elementary school, middle school, high school and college. It was created to provide a conceptual foundation for educators who deal with Hispanic students and families. Professionals who are not Hispanic may be blind to the intricacies of language, history, and culture which define Hispanic students. This manual is for those educators who seek a positive approach to working with Hispanic students. It provides necessary background information for educators to build on the strengths and diversity which Hispanic students bring with them--their culture, history, and language.

WHY IS IT IMPORTANT FOR ME TO KNOW ABOUT LANGUAGE, HISTORY, AND CULTURE? I'M AN EDUCATOR, NOT AN ANTHROPOLOGIST!

By language and culture we mean how groups view the world and

operate in it. Language and culture are the symbolic systems which every human group uses sub-consciously. But the system which you assume to be universal may in fact not be. Your students bring another system which they will depend upon when speaking, thinking, learning, etc. Your job as a professional is to start WHERE THEY ARE and develop them. You need to know a lot about their past as a cultural group and how it affected the education they received as well as knowing about Spanish and how it may influence the use of English. This background will give you an indication of WHERE STUDENTS ARE and you will be able to teach from where they are rather than where you would like them to be.

WHAT DOES TEACHING HAVE TO DO WITH LANGUAGE, HISTORY, AND CULTURE?

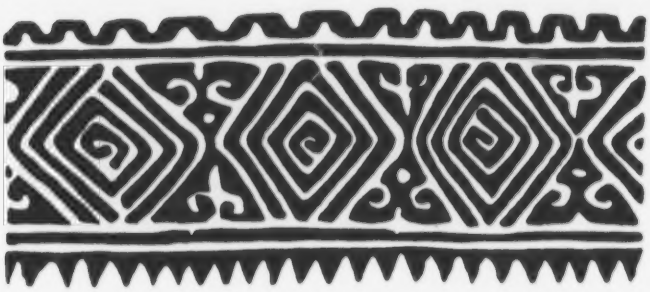
As a result of social science research, we now know that teaching involves many complexities of language use, social relationships, and interaction. Educators themselves are not free from language, history, and culture. They may unconsciously hold negative beliefs, assumptions, and attitudes towards Hispanics which they learned in North American settings. Social science research has begun to reveal the nature of these stereotypes and how they affect relationships between North Americans and Hispanics from the Caribbean, Central America, and South America. North American educational settings in which Hispanic students participate raise these issues. Teachers must be aware of the conflicts involved and how they affect their teaching and the learning of students.

Learning involves much more than memorization or doing homework. In order to learn, students must know the social ways of the classroom. If the teacher is not from their culture, students are handicapped by social interaction patterns and values which conflict with those of the home. For example, non-Hispanic teachers often get upset when Hispanic students help each other out in homework or quizes. Group cooperation and loyalty which many Hispanics value may conflict with the strong value towards individualism and competition which non-Hispanic teachers assume. This is one example of how cultural differences can cause confusion to teachers and students. This confusion hurts the Hispanic child's chance to learn and it brings conflict between teacher and student. If non-Hispanic teachers knew a little more about Hispanic culture, they could provide better learning experiences for Hispanic students and bridge the gap between school and home. The same is true for other professionals working in education: counselors, administrators, and nurses.

Language, history, and culture also influence the rules followed in systems of formal education. Students who have been schooled in a different educational system may come with objectives, classroom rules of behavior, and language patterns of language use which conflict with those followed in schools in the United States. This too is part of culture. Educators need to be aware of the source of conflicts which Hispanic students may encounter so that they can help them adjust and develop.

Social science research provides the needed background to understand Hispanic culture. Unfortunately, it is often presented in a complex and complicated way so that helping professionals like yourselves have little access to it. You probably have little time to wade through all of the social science research available. This booklet is for you. I have synthesized the most important information for you based on the following principle of social science:

"How you understand a problem influences what you do."



2. DEMOGRAPHICS

WHY FOCUS ON THE HISPANIC STUDENT?

Hispanics as an ethnic group are younger than other ethnic groups and growing rapidly. It is predicted that by the year 2,000 Hispanics will be the largest non-white ethnic group in the United States.

According to the 1980 Census, there were more than 14 million residents of Spanish origin in the United States--roughly 7 percent of the total population (Bureau ofthe Census, 1983). This figure rose to 18 million in 1986. Of course, it does not account for an estimated 6-10 million "undocumented" aliens living in the United States or the 3.1 million Puerto Ricans living on the island of Puerto Rico.

Hispanics as a group are younger than the majority population. In 1980 their median age in the United States was 23 compared to the non-Hispanic median age of 31 (Bureau of the Census 1983). This means they are more likely to have school-age children (Santiago Santiago, 1986: 54). Hispanics are not only younger as a population they are also increasing more rapidly than the national average. The Hispanic population of the United States has increased by more than one-third since the 1980 census. Hispanics are growing nearly five times faster than the rest of the population in the United States (NEW YORK TIMES, Sept. 7, 1988). It is estimated that the Hispanic population will at least double in the next 25 years (Castellano, 1984: 207). Demographers have predicted that Hispanics are expected to become the largest minority group in the United Stats by the year 2,000--reaching 47 million.

As of 1988, it is estimated that there are 19.4 million Hispanics making up approximately 8.1 per cent of the nation's population (NEW YORK TIMES, Sept. 7, 1988). This reflects an increase in services needed in public schools. Not all Hispanics need ESL (English-as-a-second language) or bilingual education services but many do. Hispanics comprise more than 6 percent of the population of public schools in the continental United States and this figure is rising rapidly. Ten years ago, there were an estimated 1.75 million Hispanic students with limited English proficiency who needed special language assistance in order to fully participate in the educational system (Pifer, 1979). This figure, of course, has increased greatly. Hispanics are the second largest minority group and one of the fastest growing populations in the U.S. All of this makes it probable that most school teachers in the course of their career will have Hispanic students in their classes at one time or another.

WHERE ARE HISPANICS LOCATED IN THE UNITED STATES?

Hispanics live in many states but as a group they are extremely concentrated geographically. Ninety per cent of the total number of Hispanics reside in the nine states of: California, Texas, New York, Florida, Illinois, Arizona, New Jersey, New Mexico, and Colorado. Table 1 lists the population figures for these states (NEW YORK TIMES, Sept. 7, 1988).

TABLE 1

Hispanic Population by States

Caliornia	.... 6, 600, 000
Texas	.... 4, 100, 000
New York	.... 2, 100, 000
Florida	.... 1, 500, 000
Illinois	.... 801, 000
Arizona	.... 646, 000
New Jersey	.... 606, 000
New Mexico	.... 543, 000
Colorado	... 366, 000

Total U.S. Hispanics = 19, 400, 000 *
(mainland only)

(* Note: These figures do not include undocumented aliens, many of whom are migrant workers)

The numbers in Table 1 do not address the density of population. For example although New Mexico has less Hispanics than New Jersey, Hispanics comprise more than one-third of the total population in New Mexico. The states of California and Texas account for over one-half of Hispanic people in the continental United States--33 per cent and 21.3 per cent respectively (NEW YORK TIMES, Sept. 7, 1988).

Over 87 percent of the Hispanics in the continental United States reside in metropolitan areas--50 per cent of them in inner cities (Bureau of the Census, 1983). In summary, Hispanics are typically found in large urban areas where they are often ghettoized and segregated with respect to the schools they attend. School enrollments in major cities are noted in Table 2 below (Pifer, 1979).

TABLE 2

School Enrollment of Hispanics in Major Cities

	Percent Hispanic
San Antonio	52 %
Los Angeles	45 %
Miami	32 %
Denver	31 %
New York City	30 %

Demographers have projected that by the year 2,000 the total number of children ages 5-14 who will need English-as-a second language (ESL) services will surpass 3.4 million. Spanish-speaking children requiring ESL will comprise 2, 630, 000 of this total or 77 per cent (U.S. Dept. of Education, 1981).

The unfortunate news is that Hispanic students are underachieving and leaving public schools in large numbers. Typically they are two to three grade levels behind other students and only 51 per cent compared to 78 per cent of the rest of the population manage to complete high school (Fields, 1988). Overall, Hispanics have the largest national "drop-out" rate of any group reaching as high as 85 percent in some urban areas. In 1988, less than 10 per cent of the Hispanic population had completed four years of college (NEW YORK TIMES, Sept. 7, 1988). This is not a new trend but it is becoming a serious issue which schools must address. Back in 1978 Hispanics aged 14-19 were more than twice as likely as whites to have dropped out of school (Brown et al.,1981). The same report noted that 40 per cent of the Hispanic population between ages 18-24 never gained their high school diploma. In urban districts the data are even more staggering. One report sponsored by Aspira of America found that the drop-out rate for Hispanics in New York city was over 75 per cent (Calitri 1983).

It is also important to note that educational attainment varies considerably among different groups of Hispanics because of immigration patterns and country of origin. For example, Cubans who immigrated to the U.S. for political reasons in the 1960's were predominantly middle-cass and educated while many Central Americans who have been immigrating since 1980 to escape severe economic conditions and/or a civil war are poor and undereducated. Table 3 gives the high school and college completion rates for each Hispanic sub-group (Fields, 1988: 20-27).

TABLE 3

Percentage of Hispanic Students
Completing High School (x) vs. College (+)

Mexican-American	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx	44.8 %
	+++	5.8 %
Puerto Rican	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx	53.8 %
	++++	8.0 %
Central & South American	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx	59.3 %
	++++++	12.2 %
Cuban	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx	61.6 %
	+++++++++	17.1 %

In the context of all this gloomy news it is not surprising to learn that Hispanics have very low college admission rates. In 1980, Hispanics represented only 3.9 per cent of full or part-time college students in the continental United States. Table 3 depicts the drastic differences between those who graduate from high school and those who make it through four years of college. Less than half of the Mexican-American subgroup completes high school and only 1 in 20 ever completes college. This figure is particularly meaningful since Mexican-Americans make up the majority of Hispanics in the United States. They comprise 63 per cent of all Hispanics.

WHY ARE HISPANICS SO UNDER-REPRESENTED IN HIGHER EDUCATION?

The problem begins at the public school level. Many are behind normal grade levels from very early ages because of limited-English proficiency, frequent family moves, poor schools and teachers, and illness caused by poor nutrition or lack of medical attention. Teachers are usually from a different culture and ethnic group and therefore do not offer education which is culturally appropriate for Hispanics (Santiago Santiago 1986).

Fields (1988: 20) notes that between fifth and eighth grades nearly 40 per cent of all Hispanic stdents are behind grade level, compared to 25 per cent of Anglos. Many Hispanic children who fail grades are bored, become discipline problems, and have low self-images. At least 10 per cent never even enroll in high school. Those that do enter high school are often tracked into vocational prgrams and receive teachers and counselors who have low expectations for them. Only about 37 per cent of the total number of Hispanic students are ever enrolled in college prep courses (Fields 1988: 22).

SO HOW DOES ALL OF THIS IMPACT ON EDUCATION AND MY JOB?

It is obvious that Hispanics are a growing minority in the United States that requires our urgent attention. Educators and other professionals need to develop more viable and creative ways to meet the needs of the Hispanic student. A quick overview of the statistics point to the tremendous need that must be met if we do not want to enlarge the underclass in this society.

Hispanic students rarely have role models in school with whom they can identify ethnically. Hispanics are not equitably represented in the professonal employee ranks in schools. In 1978, the proportion of teachers of Hispanic origin was only 1.8 per cent for secondary schools and 2.3 per cent for elementary schools (National Center for Educational Statistics 1982, p. 51-52). In the 1980's and 1990's Hispanic students will in most cases be taught by non-Hispanic teachers which means there is a great need for these teachers to be informed about the language and cultural background of Hispanic students so that they can be more sensitive to their needs. That is what this book is all about.

3. DIVERSITY IN THE HISPANIC COMMUNITY

WHO DOES THE TERM "HISPANIC" REFER TO?

The term "Hispanic" is generally used in the United States to refer to an ethnic group which is defined by its ancestral links to the Spanish language and culture. The term is problematic and biased since it refers only to the colonialistic-based roots of Latin America and the Caribbean. In fact, many countries in Latin America have both Indian and African ancestral roots in addition to the colonialistic influence of Spain. Indian ancestry is just now being rediscovered in some countries, such as Nicaragua, since Spain wiped out most of the Indians of Latin America.

The term "Hispanic" usually assumes the use of Spanish as a first language. Members of this ethnic group often prefer the term "Latino" over "Hispanic." In this manual, we have opted to use the term "Hispanic" because it is a familiar term to Euro-American and African-American educators who will be the main readers of this manual. (The term "Euro-American" will be used to refer to North Americans whose ancestry is traceable to Europe and the term "African-American" similarly to those whose ancestry is traceable to Africa.)

Hispanics may share the same mother language and a similar culture but in many ways they are extremely heterogeneous as an ethnic group. The term "Hispanic" is a term which hides this diversity. The country of origin contributes to the diversity found in the Hispanic community. There are several major subgroups in the Hispanic community. Table 4 lists the population for the major Hispanic sub-groups in the continental United States as estimbated by the 1988 Bureau of Census.

TABLE 4

Hispanic Sub-Groups: Population

Mexican heritage	12.1 million
Puerto Rican (mainland only)	2.5 million
Cuban	1.0 million
Central & South America	2.2 million
Others (Caribbean & Spain	1.6 million

HOW CAN AN UNDERSTANDING OF THIS DIVERSITY HELP ME TEACH?

The more you know about your students the better you can provide motivating and appropriate educational experiences for them. It is important for you to identify the country of origin of your students because this can serve as a first clue to their history and educational orientation. It is not enough just to know that they are Spanish speakers. There are big differences in culture, class, and history among different Latin American and Caribbean countries.

In addition, you should not assume the there will always be peace among Hispanic subgroups. There are often very different historical backgrounds between some subgroups. For example, disagreements may arise between Cubans who migrated to the United States in the 1960's and tend to be middle-class and Puerto Ricans who migrated north to obtain jobs but who may be working-class or poor. If you understand more about the culture and history of the major subgroups, you will be able to create more positive interpersonal relations in your classroom.

HOW DO HISPANIC SUB-GROUPS DIFFER FROM ONE ANOTHER?

There is diversity from one sub-group to another which is accounted for primarily by the political and economic history of the sub-group as it initially entered U.S. society. In these two areas we find much diversity. This will be discussed below for each group. But we must be careful not to oversimplify. The Hispanic subgroups in the United States represent a wide range of nationalities, educational backgrounds, socio-economic statuses, and professional skills. Some of your students may be exceptions to the majority in their country of origin. I will provide some history to help you have some clues. This history should not be used to stereotype your students, but rather to help you teach them better.

Let's imagine a class full of students, many of whom are Hispanic. Since Hispanic sub-groups are concentrated in specific regions in the United States, it might be rare for you to encounter a full range of diversity in just one region of the United States. But just to make a point, let's imagine that you have the maximum diversity among Hispanics in your class. Let's see who you might have.

First there is JUAN. He is a first generation mainland Puerto Rican. His father brought his mother and three brothers and sisters to the United States five years ago. Formerly, they lived in a rural area in Puerto Rico where they could barely survive. His father worked as a day laborer there and could not earn enough to pay for the needs of his family. Ten years ago he was brought to New Jersey as a migrant worker. When he had saved enough money, he brought his family to the United States. They now live in the Hispanic community in Lakewood, New Jersey.

[When Puerto Rico was industrialized by companies from the United States who were attracted by very cheap labor, cheap land, and no taxes to pay, agriculture became industrialized and high inflation was introduced on the island (Mays and Wheaton, 1976). Those living in rural areas began to trade their labor for pay but the wages were abominably low. Many, like Juan's family, fled to urban areas in the United States for economic survival.]

CONCEPCIÓN--daughter of Mexican migrants--will only be in your class for a few weeks since her parents are migrant workers and they move with the season, often returning to Mexico during the winter. When she gets old enough, she will probably join her family and help with farm work to contribute to the family income. Because her education is always so interrupted, Concepción will have a very low level of literacy in Spanish. She will probably be at only a second or third grade level in either Spanish or English even if she is twelve or thirteen years old and stands 5' tall. Since Concepción is not "legal" in the United States, some school districts may deny her admission until her parents pay them tuition. You should inform the school and her familiy that this action is illegal. Children in the United States have a right to free public education no matter what the legal status of their parents is. This was affirmed in a Texas court several years ago.

[Migrant workers are found in the Southwest, Illinois, North Carolina, and other agrarian-based states. Many migrant workers are from the poor, rural sections of Mexico. They seek work in the United States for their own economic survival since inflation in Mexico--brought partly by the enormous debt to the United States--makes it impossible to survive on the land alone. They come to the United States for economic survival. Some come with their families and others send money back to their families. Migrant workers often provide the only viable means of the family's economic survival.]

JOSÉ is Mexican-American. He is the second generation of his family to live in the United States. His mother and father migrated from Mexico to a medium sized town in Texas about 15 years ago. His father works in a factory and his mother stays home and takes care of the children. They continue to speak Spanish at home and in their neighborhood which is almost totally Spanish-speaking. However, both of them speak a little English and it is not uncommon for them to switch back and forth between English and Spanish when talking to José and others in their neighborhood. Thus, José speaks a lot of Spanish and some English even though he was born in the United States.

[The U.S. Southwest historically belonged to Mexico and is historically Spanish- speaking. There are some families in southwestern states whose ancestors were living there when the U.S. annexed what was then part of Mexico. Other Mexicans migated there later. A large part of the Southwest is Spanish-speaking and many Hispanics are bilingual. It is not uncommon to find entire neighborhoods or towns in which Spanish is the dominant language and English is also present. Jose has been raised in such a place and therefore he is on his way to being totally bilingual. He will be raised with both languages at once. Ultimately, he will probably learn to read in English and lose his ability to read in Spanish. He will function in Spanish for most oral comunication in his neighborhood but be expected to read and write mainly in English.]

Oh, don't forget ROSARIO. She's a refugee from El Salvador and she still has some emotional problems from the war in which she grew up. She saw her uncle murdered by the army. When the soldiers took away her mother and father and put them in prison, they left her and her sister in an orphanage. Her mother and father were tortured for several days and released. It took them several persistent days to find their children. When they finally located them and got them out of the orphanage, the entire family had to plan an escape quickly because they received many death threats from death squads. To guard their life, each of them slept in a different person's house each night until they could escape to the United States via Mexico. The family now lives as "illegal" refugees in the United States. Even though they were tortured in El Salvador and have a good case, the U.S. government approves less than three per cent of the applications for political asylum. They haven't applied yet because their chances of approval are slim and if they get deported, they would certainly be killed as many of their friends have been.

[Those who cross the Mexican/U.S. border as refugees from El Salvador and Guatemala come with nothing except the clothes on their back, fear, and memories of brutal repression in these countries. All of them have had friends and relatives killed or "disappeared" by death squads or the army and many have also been tortured or wounded themselves. This may also be true of their children. The situation is more critical each day in these two countries. To be a poor child in El Salvador is a crime punished by a bullet or a bomb. To be a Mayan Indian in Guatemala gets the same treatment.

Because the United States government rarely grants these refugees asylum, most Salvadorans do not apply and simply live in "illegal" status in the United States. This means they live in dreadful conditions within our country: they receive limited medical attention, live in over-crowded housing arrangements, work very dangerous jobs, may be abused by employers, and worry a great deal about their families in their home countries. Children in these families are subjected to tremendous emotional stress and are expected to take on much responsibility at a very early age. Children like Rosario may be carrying many burdens which will not be shared with teachers. Some of these burdens come from painful memories and others from present struggles of survival in a country which officially rejects you because of your country of origin. The rate of approval of applications for political asylum from Gautemalan and El Salvadoran refugees was about 2.8 per cent in 1989 (CARACEN, 1989.]

Then there's OSCAR. He's from Nicaragua. He came to the U.S. with his family in 1985 because the economic situation in Nicaragua worsened as the trade embargo imposed by the United States cut off imports and exports. Oscar's family does not represent the majority of Nicaraguans who are working class and poor. Oscar has relatives in the United States in Miami, Florida. They helped bring his family and settle them in Florida. Oscar's family did not agree with the revolution in Nicaragua because it meant they could not live at the same standard of living they had before. The Nicaraguan revolution put its resources in creating a new society in which the poor and working class would not have to starve to death, die of common illnesses, remain illiterate, and have their labor exploited for the wealthy and rich. This was too much of a sacrifice for some Nicaraguans so they moved to the United States to continue their life style and oppose the changes being instituted for the sake of the poor rural farmers (peasants) in Nicaragua.

[Unlike Rosario, Oscar and his family were fairly well off in their home country and in no danger. They probably had a car, a television set, a maid, and a roomy house. Oscar went to a private school in Nicaragua. His parents are college educated professionals or business people. All of this is very unlike the majority of people in Nicaragua. When inflation started to rise and the goods and services favored the majority in the country who were poor, Oscar's family decided to buy a house in the United States. They flew to Miami and have been living there ever since.]

DAVID just moved to Lake Forest, Illinois from a suburb of Miami, Florida where he went to school with many other Cuban

children. However, he has never been to Cuba. He only knows about it from hearing stories told by his father who is a doctor and his mother who is a teacher. His parents fled in 1960 shortly after Fidel Castro took power. Since Miami is overwhelmingly Spanish-speaking now, David only speaks a little English. However, his literacy skills in Spanish are advanced. David is culturally Cuban but he has many qualities which mark him as being a native of the United States. His dress, his love of television shows, his sports involvement, and his education are some of these traits. His family is well-established with a good income and a private home. The point is that David is neither an immigrant nor a migrant nor a refugee. He, therefore, begins with many advantages over those who did enter the United States as oe of these.

> [A majority of Cubans who left at the time Fidel Castro took power were middle-class, educated, and light-skinned. Many had bank accounts, previously established business relations in the United States, and relatives in Florida or other parts of the United States. All of these advantages helped make their transition in the United States smooth and quick. This is why Cubans are often credited by Euro-Americans as being "more successful" than other Hispanics. They entered the United States with more education, money, and inside contacts than other impoverished groups, such as, Puerto Ricans or El Salvadorans or Mexicans.]

CARLA has lived for most of her life in New York City but she identifes herself as being Puerto Rican. Two years ago she moved back to San Juan, Puerto Rico with her mother. She had a very difficult time fitting in. The kids there referred to her as a "Newyoriquan" because she spoke differently and had developed the values of New York (Zentella, 1981). At school she was expected to function academically in Spanish, but she could not because in New York City schools she was expected to do all of her reading, writing, and homework in English. The schools in Puerto Rico placed her two grades below her age because she could not read and write Spanish. She didn't like Puerto Rico. She was miserable there and so was her mother. There was fear of crime everywhere; the housing was as bad as New York City; and her mother could not find a decent job anywhere. They moved back to New York city this month and are now resettling. The same process is starting all over again for Carla as she re-enters a new public school and has to make new friends and function academically again in English. The teachers at P.S. # 300 tested her and have determined that she lost three years of education in English while in Puerto Rico. They put her in seventh grade even though she is now fifteen years old. Carla is already beginning to show great discouragement and to talk about dropping out. If the school or a few brave teachers do not intervene, she will soon walk with her feet and leave school for a more successful atmosphere.

[Re-adjusting to life in Puerto Rico can be very difficult for children raised in the United States. Puerto Rican schools demand a higher level of literacy skills in Spanish than has been learned on the mainland. housing is hard to obtain, jobs are unavailable, and urban crime is rampant. Many Puerto Ricans who attempt to return to their native island return in frustration to the United States where opporunity exists but life is not that much better for them. By then their children have lost several years of English schooling and are now behind here. The children are often caught between two languages and cultures. They need time and the care of teachers to catch up. Many never get such intervention and consequently they drop out of school.]

Meet RICARDO who is a third generation Mexican-American who was raised in Los Angeles and speaks more English than Spanish. He doesn't share the same economic background with either Concepción or José because he is middle class and thorouhly Americanized or should we say "California-ized". He will not be placed in an ESL class but because his surname is Hispanic, he may be placed in a bilingual education class. In that case, he will be learning to read and write in his less dominant language--Spanish. This program would give him a chance to renew his cultural roots although it would differ from a vast number of bilingual education programs which serve limited-English proficient Hispanics, providing only enough Spanish to move students quickly into mainstream classes in English.

[Ricardo may be haunted by a great difference in class between himself and Mexican migrant workers in California to such an extent that he may attach little identification to his Mexican ancestry and may in fact make fun of Mexican migrants. Middle-class, third-generation Mexican-Americans like Ricardo long to be free of discrimination in society. Unfortunately, they are still not quite accepted by Euro-American society and its institutions. Many third-generation Mexican-Amerians seek to distinguish themselves from first-generation Mexican migrants who receive even more discrimination (Penfield and Ornstein, 1985). Ricardo may exhibit a resisance to using or learning Spanish for these reasons.]

Finally there's LUCAS whose indigenous name is IXCAN. He is a Mayan Indian from Guatemala who entered Brownsville, Texas at the age of eleven as a refugee. He arrived there with his sixteen-year old brother via Mexico. Ixcan is a first language speaker of Quiche and a second language speaker of Spanish. He went to school in his village in the province of Quiché until the army came, killed the leaders in the village, and burned the entire village, including the school, down. His father, a long-time community worker and delegate of the word (a Catechist), was murdered before his entire family when Ixcan was only nine years old. Shortly after the murder of his father, the entire village fled to the northern highlands of Guatemala to seek safety but the army pursued them with helicopters and guns supplied by Israel, Taiwan, South Africa, and the United States. He and his 16-year old brother decided to seek refuge in the United States. It was very dangerous and difficult for them to get through Mexico. They were robbed and beaten several times along the way. When they entered Brownsville, Texas, they immediately applied for political asylum. Instead of granting them asylum, the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service placed them in a nearby detention center with

juveniles convicted of serious crimes. They had committed no crimes at all. They stayed there for six months until some members of a small church in Detroit involved with the Borderlinks Program came to "adopt" them. They now live in Detroit and attend a high school there.

[Guatemala is often presented as a democracy. One of the best kept secrets in Central America is the brutal repression by the army of the poor Ladinos (those who have both Spanish and Indian blood) and Indians (Mayans) who make up 3/5 of the entire population but who occupy a very small part of the land of Guatemala. There are over fourteen different Indian language groups in Guatemala. Many of these groups lived in poverty in isolated areas of the country. Previously, they have not been able to communicate with one another and they have not had access to health care or education so they are usually illiterate. Consequently the army has been able to trick them out of their land and the rich wealthy landowners have been able to exploit their labor extensively.

The basic issue in Guatemala is similar to most other Central American countries: a small minority of wealthy individuals whose relatives originally colonized the country own most of the land while the majority who are peasants do not have sufficient land to even grow enough to feed their families. As these peasants have organized to change the unfair distribution of land, the army has sought to stamp out this process of change by brutally oppressing the poor. This is still taking place in Guatemala as a matter of governmental policy.

For some time now the army has had a scorched earth policy. They burn the crops, homes, and schools of villagers forcing them to flee for safety. They require men in Mayan villages to participate in whatare termed "civil patrols." Even though the Constitution states that such duties are strictly voluntary, if boys and men refuse to participate in civil patrol duty, they are often killed or disappeared. In 1989 an entire village (Aguacate) refused to participate in such patrols and a few weeks later 23 of them were found in a mass grave after having been tortured and strangled to death. An eyewitness to the murders has since been found tortured and strangled. Most clues lead to the army.

Such brave human rights groups as the Grupo Apoyo Mutuo (GAM)--a support group of individuals whose relatives have been disappeared--and the Guatemalan Church in Exile--priests and lay workers who were forced to flee Guatemala because of death threats--have written in detail about the destruction of Mayan culture by the government and army (GUATEMALA: SECURITY, DEVELOPMENT, AND DEOCRACY, 1989; Pro-Justice and Peace Committee of Guatemala, 1989) . There

are explicit government attempts to displace the Mayan population and shift whole populations in order to control them and prevent their access to land.

As a matter of practice, villages and their crops are bombed and entire regions put in chaos. When the villagers become weary and near starvation, they seek some relief. At this point they are hearded into newly created villages called "development poles." These areas are slave camps. Villagers are given rice and beans to eat only when they have worked enough each day cultivating crops for export. No one can enter or leave without permission. The entrances are always guarded heavily by the army. Those inhabitating the poles can never move out of them. They must get up early and are constantly subjeced to propaganda which encourages members of a communal society to work against one another. They are encouraged to spy on their neighbors and report them. In short Mayan culture is being killed little by little in Guatemala through the repressive policies of the military (Spencer, 1987).]

It is probably very rare that all of this diversity would be expressed in your classroom because Mexican-American children are usually found in the Southwest and Puerto Rican students are more typically located in the East or Mid-west but maybe at one time in your history as a teacher, an administrator, or a counselor you will encounter students similar to those we have just introduced above.

WELCOME TO YOUR SCHOOL AND ITS DIVERSITY!

WHAT IS THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THESE HISPANIC SUBGROUPS?

Before we look at each sub-group, we must take a walk back into U.S. political history. A large majority of Hispanics did not enter U.S. society as most immigrants from Europe did. Many became part of the United States society when their territories were colonized or annexed. Puerto Ricans and Mexican-Americans fall into this category. Historically, these groups were colonized peoples. That is to say that these two sub-groups did not come to the United States by personal choice. The United States occupied them and lands became colonies of the United States.

Puerto Ricans and Mexican-Americans have historically been marginalized people. John Ogbu (1982; 1986), an anthropologist, has noted that these two groups are similar to African-Americans and American Indians. He refers to all four groups as "caste-like" minorities--groups which have been treated as castes and whose members have a difficult time escaping the status into which they are born. Society creates and maintains caste-like minorities by keeping them hopeless and helpless; poor and powerless. In academic achievement the marginalization of these caste-like groups becomes apparent when contrasted to native groups which have immigrated here.

For example, after only one year of schooling in English (their second language), Mexican children who had been schooled in Spanish in their own country performed academically above Mexican-American children who were schooled in the U.S. in English (Cummins 1986). Much research points to the fact that this difference exists in other countries as well whenever minorities are marginalized. One example are the Finnish immigrants in Sweden (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1979). They too are marginalized populations. An analysis which points to the impact of mainstream society's policies on populations is much more helpful to education than the typical approach of focusing on how to cure the victim of a system which creates caste-like minorities.

Racism and discrimination in mainstream society keep minorities in a caste-like position. Both of these have a tremendous psycho-social impact on the achievement of students in schools. While some teachers have pointed to a low self-concept as an explanation for less academic success among marginalized populations, the truth is that marginalized groups are usually poor and powerless. A more helpful analysis would be that they suffer from lack of access to decision-making and to services, lack of resources, and low expectations on the part of schools and teachers. This means that the solutions for marginalized groups rests with changes in the institutions which do not provide them relevant and adequate services rather than in programs to change Hispanics or other minorities. Change must focus on institutions and policies which create caste-like minorities, not the victims themsevles.

Above all, it is important for teachers to understand that there is much diversity in the groups referred to as "Hispanics".

WHICH SUB-GROUP IS THE BIGGEST?

Mexican-Americans make up 12.1 million or 63 per cent of the entire Hispanic population in the United States (New York Times, Sept. 7, 1988). The vast majority of Mexican-Americans (Chicanos) live in the Southwest in the states of California, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado. Historically, Mexican-Americans became citizens of the United States in the 19th century when half of Mexico (what is now California, New Mexico, Arizona, southern Colorado, and Texas) was annexed by the United States. Many of the Mexican-American families living in New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado had lived there since the 16th century and their relatives still live there now. The Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo signed in 1848 at the end of the Mexican-American war guaranteed those who lived within the annexed territory the right to keep their land, customs, religion, and language. It is important to recognize that Spanish was one of the original languages of the United States. Spanish existed in North America long before English.

For several generations Mexican-Americans have lived along the 2,000 mile U.S./Mexican border in cities and small towns--often

intermarrying with Euro- and African-Americans. Border areas in partiular are characterized by a large degree of bilingualism and code-switching involving types of English and Spanish which are different from American English or Mexican Spanish (Penfield & Ornstein, 1985). We now have much descriptive linguistic research on both dialects. There is extreme multilingual diversity along the border and educators need to appreciate this rather than try to stamp it out. Too many teachers refuse to take the language of bilinguals as legitimate since it does not match "textbook" Spanish. Their negative attitudes increase the degree of marginalization among this student population. Bilingualism is a sign of strength, not of weakness and many different dialects are a sign of multilingualism, not of incorrect speech (Gumperz and Hernandez-Chavez, 1975; Zentella, 1981). If teachers understood this fact, students could learn to appreciate the diversity in which they live.

The Mexican-American population also includes recent arrivals and migrant workers escaping the economic poverty of Mexico in search of manual labor. Migrant workers (braceros) who make up an estimated 6-10 million undocumented aliens in the United States often move in cyclical migration patterns between Mexico and the United States. They are also sometimes denied education for their children. It is sometimes common practice in Texas to find migrant students segregated fom the mainstream population. Their classes are often housed in trailers in a school yard rather than in the physical building of the school, giving them little opportunity to mingle with the Euro-American and other mainstream students. Mexican migrant workers have made a necessary contribution to the U.S. economy even though they are exploited for their labor at very low wages. Their children deserve to be treated more equitably.

ARE PUERTO RICANS CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES? CAN THEY VOTE?

Puerto Ricans make up the second largest group of Hispanics with 3 million on the island of Puerto Rico and 2.3 million in the continental U.S. (Santiago 1986: 100). Puerto Rico was colonized by the United States in 1898 following Spain's defeat in the Spanish-American war. Puerto Ricans were granted citizenship by the Jones Act of 1917. They hold a unique and ambivalent status: they are "citizens" of the United States who can be drafted to fight in U.S. wars; island residents do not pay federal taxes but do receive benefits from the federal government; and those on the island can not vote in presidential or congressional elections but Puerto Ricans residing on the U.S. continent can. Islanders have no representation in the U.S. Senate but they do have a commissioner who sits in on meetings of the U.S. House of Representatives. She/he is NOT elected by the Puerto Rican people and she/he is not allowed a vote in the House of Representatives.

The largest migration of Puerto Ricans to the U.S. mainland took place after WW II when Puerto Rico, which was primarily an agricultural economy, was converted by U.S. mainland corporations to agro-business and industrialization. The corporations were attracted

by cheap unskilled labor, large plots of land, and no taxation. Remembering that they were now classified as U.S. citizens, Puerto Ricans came to the U.S. mainland in search of what they had lost as the island economy altered, i.e., jobs and property. Instead they encountred unemployment, racial discrimination, and the problems of urban living. The movie "West Side Story" captured their experiences very well. For many Puerto Ricans living in New York city there has been no improvement since the movie was made. Puerto Ricans migrating to urban United States moved into the poorest neighborhoods and lived side by side African-Americans. Since they often displaced African-Americans in unskilled labor, there has sometimes been tension between the two communities.

Despite some conflicts in their community, Puerto Ricans share one thing with African-Americans in U.S. society: discrimination. Puerto Ricans do not understand the Euro-American prejudice and discrimination which is based on race and language. In Puerto Rico one finds a large range of skin colors and any person who is not obviously black as revealed by their eye color and hair, is considered "white". What the newly arrived Puerto Rican must learn in the United States is that the Euro-American views anyone who is not obviously white as non-white. For children, these racial attitudes are psychologically painful and damaging and they impact strongly on school success and classoom interaction.

[For more information, consult:]

PUERTO RICO: A PEOPLE CHALLENGING COLONIALISM, 1976 by Jeb Mays and Philip Wheaton, EPICA (Ecumenical Program for International Communication and Action) Task Force, 1570 Irving Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20010

DO CUBANS SHARE THE SAME HISTORY AS PUERTO RICANS AND MEXICAN-AMERICANS?

No. For the most part, Cubans have not entered the United States as colonized peoples but rather as immigrants--more akin to Europeans who entered the United States. Unlike many other Hispanics and like many other ethnic groups immigrating to the United States, Cuban immigration has been one way. Rarely have Cubans engaged or even considered back-and-forth migration like Puerto Ricans or Mexican-Americans because Cubans are cut off from frequent visits to relatives in Cuba.

Cubans entered the United States in two very different waves of immigration. The first wave occurred after 1959 as a result of the Cuban revolution led by Fidel Castro. The majority of Cubans now living in the United States--about 1/2 million people--came then. This migratory wave consisted mostly of members of the middle- and upper-classes in Cuba, i.e. educated professionals and business people. Many came with money and business contacts they had already established in Miami. Both of these factors enabled them to quickly get settled. In

addition they were predominantly light skinned and thus did not encounter the racial prejudice which Mexican-Americans, Puerto Ricans, and many Central Americans have repeatedly faced.

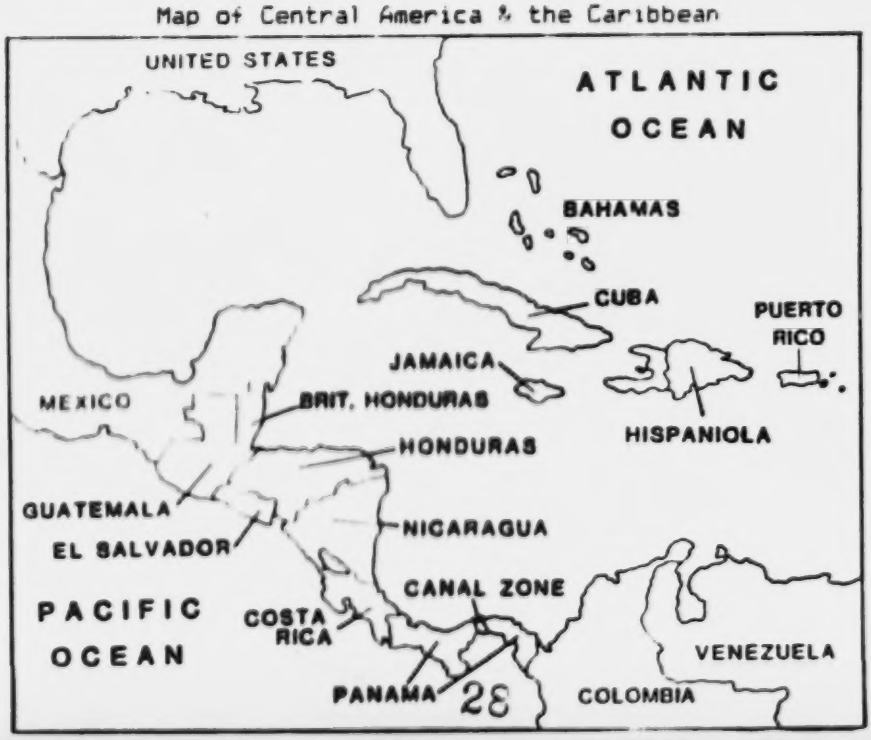
Twenty years later in 1980 a second wave of 125,000 Cubans immigrated to the United States. This group is referred to as "marielitos" because they were permitted or obliged to leave Cuba through the port of El Mariel, Cuba. Many were inmates in jails and asylums in Cuba and most were illiterate and poor. Quite unlike the first wave of Cubans, they came with no economic support, few family ties in Florida, and few skills for earning a living here. Today a number of these Cubans are in prison in the United States; others live a life of poverty; and others have been sent back to Cuba. Those who do work are often found in menial jobs. Marielitos have been stigmatized by both Euro-American and Cuban-Americans and therefore have not received the support that other immigrant groups have. This has made their adjustment an extremely difficult problem.

WHY HAVE SO MANY CENTRAL AMERICAN REFUGEES COME TO THE UNITED STATES IN THE PAST TEN YEARS?

Many Central Americans have taken refuge in the United States in the last decade because of the dire situation in their countries. For the majority of people in Central America, poverty and death are a way of life. There is a large grass roots movement in Central America to change the extreme unjust distribution of land and resources which causes the masses to die young and suffer hunger while a few elite live extravagantly (Berryman, 1985). In particular, there has been a large influx of refugees from El Salvador and Guatemala where the military brutally oppress the people and bands of murderers known as "death squads" disappear people. (See Figure 1, Map of Central America).

FIGURE 1

Map of Central America & the Caribbean



* * *

EL SALVADOR

Like all the other Central American countries, El Salvador is mainly agrarian. The majority of the people in El Salvador are struggling for survival. They seek to change the unfair monopoly in which 14 rich families control 70 per cent of the arable land. Eighty per cent of the income of the country goes to the wealthiest twenty per cent (PACCA, 1987). The average per capita income is $250 per year. Civil War or armed struggle has been going on since 1980. El Salvador is the third largest recipient of U.S. military aid in the world. Over $3 billion have been given for military aid in El Salvador since 1980. Today, the U.S. continues to contribute $1.7 million per day to El Salvador. Almost one million Salvadorans now reside in the United States as refugees because of the military and economic crisis in their country ("Human Rights Group Conters Deprtment of State Report, 1987).

One day you may encounter Salvadoran students in your classes in the United States. If these students have lived in El Salvador between 1980 and 1990 or beyond, they have seen extreme proverty, may nave been directly affected by a civil war that has only grown more comprehensive, and witnessed the effects of an earth quake which damaged many parts of San Salvador. Some students may come from a very middle-class background. Even so, they may have suffered in some way from the war situation in their country. Those who are from agrarian or poor backgrounds in El Salvador may have suffered the effects of civil war more directly. You will need to be aware of their emotional needs and spend extra time easing them into the values of North America.

CASE STUDY: I once worked with a young refugee family from El Salvador which was somewhat middle-class. The father had been a health worker working with displaced El Salvadorans and his wife was a teacher. His work for the poor was opposed by the government. Any help for the poor is a threat to the government which represents the interests of the wealthy minority. One day the army showed up at his house and took him for questioning. They held him for 72 hours during which time they tortured him severely. Later he was released. The army again returned to his house and this time grabbed his infant son of eight months. They put his head under water to obtain some secret information which the father was supposed to maintain. His other two children ages six and four witnessed all of this. For several years, once they had arrived in the United States, the children had nightmares and occasional problems of aggressive behavior while in school. Given the stormy background from which they came, this seems quite normal. Other Salvadoran children whose families worked with and for the poor have even worse tales to tell. Children need a chance to gradually express their feelings and share their experiences in an open atmosphere. If you are their teacher or

counselor, you should not react in an extremely horrified manner but let them have a chance to express their feelings to you if they so desire.

[For more information, consult the following resources:]

COMADRES (Committee of Mothers and relatives of Political Prisoners, Disappeared and Assassinated of El Salvador), 945 G Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20001

CARECEN (Central American Refugee Center), Human Rights Office, 5 Centre Street, Suite 9, Hempstead, New York 11550

UPDATE, monthly reports on Central America from the Central American Historical Institute, Intercultural Center, Georgetown University, Washington, D.C. 20057.

ALERT!, monthly Central America reporting from P.O. Box 12056, Washington, D.C. 20005

REPORT ON THE AMERICAS, bimonthly analysis of Latin America from the North American Congress on Latin America, 151 W. 19th Street, 9th floor, New York, New York 10011.

WITNESS TO WAR by Charles Clements, NY: Bantam Books, 1984. (Powerful account of an American doctor's year in a rebel-held area of El Salvador.)

EL SALVADOR - THE FACE OF REVOLUTION by Robert Armstrong and Janet Shenk, Boston, Mass.: South End Press, 1982.

* * *

GUATEMALA

Guatemala has a population of about eight and one-half million. Six million of these are peasants, the majority being indigenous (Mayan Indians). They live on one-tenth of the arable land in the country. Most of them are peasant farmers. In the past three decades they have been driven from their small plots of land by the greed of the few rich large land-holders who are backed by a right-wing army (Frank and Wheaton, 1984). Part of the indigenous population is forced to live in controlled zones referred to as "development poles" where they can not come and go freely and they must cultivate crops for export for which they receive no pay--just rice and beans. Males in peasant villages are required to participate in "civilian patrols" in which they are trained to spy on and sometimes kill their neighbors if the army leaders command it. Mayan culture is gradually being wiped away by the brutal policies of the Guatemalan government towards its poor and indigenous population (Spencer, 1987). The Guatemalan government has purhased thousands of rifles from the United States and its police force has received training from Israeli and South African military commanders.

An estimated one-half million Guatemalan refugees have fled to the United States for safety. Most are forced to reside here illegally under dire conditions since political asylum is rarely granted by the U.S. government. Thousands of others have fled to Mexico in the states of Chiapas, Quintana Roo, and Campeche. Another one and one-half million Guatemalans are displaced inside Guatemala as the military destroys crops, kills villagers, disappears groups of people, and bombs villages to silence a popular movement (Pro-Justice and Peace Committee of Guatemala, 1989).

Some Mayan refugees have migrated from Mexico to the United States. They are accustomed to a rural style of life often with communal living patterns and a high degree of cooperation. Students from this background may have very little literacy background in Spanish. Remember, Spanish would be their second or third language. Mayans learn Spanish primarily through school. Those who are poor and exploited for their labor often never get much opportunity to go to school. Even as children they have to work like adults. The poverty in which they are raised often requires children to begin working at a very early age. Many Mayans have traditionally worked in the large plantations on the southern coast during harvest time and returned to their home in the highlands for the rest of the year. This life style has become less possible as inflation increases, villages are bombed, and more and more of thei land is stolen fom them by members of the army.

CASE STUDY: I know a few Mayan families who managed to escape the genocide of their village. A North American priest got them out of Quiche and into the United States. They find the highly technological ways of the United States fascinating but difficult to deal with. They are simple people of the earth. Now they must learn to cook with gas, to spend much more time reading and writing in schools, and to cope with a very non-communal culture--one which prizes individualism. Since they are all weavers, they try to maintain their cultural values, such as, artistry in weaving. They worry that their children will lose their native language--Quiche--if they stay here too long. They long to go back to their beautiful countryside where their ancestors are buried, but they know that for now that is dangerous for themselves and their children. They try to keep in contact with what is going on in Guatemala, but there is such little news in the United States that it becomes very difficult. They are a humble and ancient people in a fast-paced and modern world. Their children seem day by day to be slipping from their ancient traditions and they plan everyday to return to their homeland.

[For more information, consult the following resources:]

NISGUA (Network in Solidarity with the People of Guatemala), 1314 14th St., N.W., #17, Washington, D.C. 20005

ATANACIO TZUL REFUGEE CENTER, P.O. Box 425, Concordia, Kansas 66901

GUATEMALAN CHURCH IN EXILE Apartado 1395, Managua, Nicaragua (a group of priests and lay workers who worked with the poor in Guatemala and had to flee because of death threats; they now write independently to improve human rights of the Mayans in Guatemala).

GUATEMALA HEALTH RIGHTS SUPPORT PROJECT, 1747 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009

MARYKNOLL MAGAZINE, July 1989, Maryknoll, New York 10545

THE MOUNTAIN IS OUR TEACHER, Guatemalan Church in Exile, 1985.

GUATEMALA: SECURITY, DEVELOPMENT, AND DEMOCRACY, Guatemalan Church in Exile, 1989

GARRISON GUATEMALA by George Black et al. 1984. New York: Monthly Review Press.

WHEN THE MOUNTAINS TREMBLE, movie/video by Yates & Sigel, New Yorker Films

* * *

NICARAGUA

Since the overthrow of the cruel dictator, Anastasio Somoza, in 1979, the government of Nicaragua has given land and resources to the peasants and the working class who form the majority. The U.S. backed and financed Contras have tried to crush these attempts at social and economic reform by torturing and murdering civilians. Their work is to destroy, intimidate, and terrorize. Over 55,000 Nicaraguans have died or been wounded by counter-revolutionary raiders. Many health centers and schools have been destroyed. The trade embargo against Nicaragua imposed by the Reagan administration has increased economic stress in Nicaragua--forcing some Nicaraguans to migrate to the U.S. for economic reasons. The Reagan administration waged a strong campaign of disinformation against Nicaragua because Nicaragua refused to comply with imperialistic practices. Many citizens ofthe United States do not understand the truth about Nicaragua ("Nicaragua and the U.S. Media--A History of Lies, 1987).

If you have students from Nicaragua, they will most likely come from middle-class families. Their parents may speak strongly against the Nicaraguan revolution. Poor and working-class families in Nicaragua do not have the resources to move to the United States. In

addition. since the revolution favors them and has helped to improve health, education, and welfare for them, they are usually very supportive of the revolutionary process. Your students may in fact come from a very different background. By U.S. standards they may appear somewhat poor and with minimal resources, but by Nicaraguan standards they are probably quite well off. Their children have had access to private education--including some English--and other Western ways such as television, bicycles, a family car, and North American clothes. Thus if your student is from a middle-class background, she/he will have much less problem adjusting and she/he may have had instruction in the grammar of English and contact with English speakers. If your student is typical of the majority who are poor or working class, they will have more difficult time adjusting to technology, dress, individualism, and school here in urban United States.

(For more information, consult the following resources:)

WITNESS FOR PEACE, P.O. Box 567, Durham, North Carolina 27702

MARYKNOLL FATHERS & BROTHERS, Maryknoll, N.Y.

COMISION NACIONAL DE PROMOCION Y PROTECCION DE LOS DERECHOSE HUMANS, Apartado 2595, Managua, Nicaragua

"Nicaragua and the U.S. Media--A History of Lies," EXTRA, October/November, Vol. I (4), 1987 (EXTRA, 666 Broadway, Suite 400, New York, New York 10012)

WHAT DIFFERENCE COULD A REVOLUTION MAKE? by John Collins, 1985. San Francisco: Food First.

UNDER THE BIG STICK - NICARAGUA AND THE UNITED STATES SINCE 1848, by Karl Bermann, 1985. Boston, Mass.: South End Press.

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HONDURAS

Honduras is a very poor country. It is the second poorest country in the Western hemisphere. During the 1980's Honduras became linked militarily with the United States and the U.S.-backed Contras. Thousands of men in the U.S. national guard have been trained in Honduras. During this training they have participated in building huge airstrips throughout Honduras. Over fourteen airstrips now exist in this small country. During the eighties, Honduras also tolerated the presence of 7,000-8,000 counter-revolutionary troops (Contras) in its southern region. Many Honduran peasants were displaced and

Honduras has worried that these Contra troops might not leave when their funding is finally cut off by the United States.

Given the economic hardship in Honduras and the increase in death squad activity and disappearances, it is not surprising to find Honduran refugees now entering the United States. Their situation is similar to that of Nicaragua. In many cases the students who actually make it legally into the United States may be those from middle-class backgrounds. By Honduran standards they are well off but by U.S. standards they may seem poor. Their parents are probably educated and were white collar professionals in Honduras even though in the United States they may have to accept more menial work. If your students come from this background, they may have gone to private schools in Honduras and have been well-prepared academically. However, if they happen to be economic refugees who seek to escape the cycle of poverty, they will probably have few literacy skills in Spanish because of lack of access to good educational services in their home country.

CASE STUDY: I once taught two Hondurans in an bilingual adult education program. They each represented the two types described above. One was of a middle-class background, had had preparatory school training, and functioned in Spanish at about eighth grade level. The other one came from a peasant background, had had little education in Honduras, and functioned in Spanish at about third grade level. Both were exactly the same age.

[For more information, consult:]

INSIDE CENTRAL AMERICA by Philip Berryman, 1985. NY: Pantheon Books.

INEVITABLE REVOLUTIONS by Walter LaFeber, 1984. NY: Norton.

HONDURAS: A PRIEST IN THE STRUGGLE by Father James Carney (Guadalupe), 1985. Mexico D.F., Mexico: Razo Press.

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COSTA RICA

Costa Rica is the most European of all the Central American countries. The Hispanic populace looks very European--many Costa Ricans even have blond hair and blue eyes. However, Costa Ricans on the Atlantic coast--as in most other Central American countries--are African in ancestry, use English in their daily life, and originally migrated from the Caribbean. Costa Ricans, like Hondurans, Panamanians, and Nicaraguans, are multiracial, multicultural, and multilingual. They are white, brown, and black. Nevertheless, unlike the other Central American countries, Costa Rica lacks any direct links to an Indian past. Apparently, most of these roots were destroyed by the Spaniards who colonized Costa Rica.

Costa Ricans have the highest standard of living in Central America but they have recently witnessed a growing gap between the poor and the rich. Cost Rica is economically linked to the United States and walks a fine line between what it knows is best for Central America and what it knows the United States favors. For example, due to the pressure of the Reagan administration Costa Rica built up its 10,000 member "security force" into an army (PACCA, 1977).

Costa Rican students are probably more educated and better off economically than other Central Americans--on the average. They have had much more access to technology and North American values since the U.S. presence in Costa Rica is strong everywhere. More than likely they will be used to urban life since a majority of Costa Ricans live in the city.

DO CENTRAL AMERICANS SHARE ANYTHING IN COMMON?

In general, Central and South Americans and those countries in the Caribbean often share three facts of history:

(1) An indigenous background which has been attacked and oppressed for five centuries by Spanish occupation. In some cases they also share an Afro-Caribbean background which resulted from the migration of English-speaking slaves from the Caribbean. For example, the east coast of Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama are Black and English speaking. In these areas you can hear reggae music and hear English which is similar to Jamaican and other Caribbean dialects. Each of these countries has struggled to overcome forms of racism and to blend two different languages and cultures into one country.

(2) Continuous colonization and imperialism imposed first by Spain politically and more recently economically and militarily by the United States. In the past 15 years popular movements have arisen to challenge this form of imperialism as the little poor countries of Central America have begun to refuse to have their resurces and their labor exploited any more for the sake of enriching the United States while impoverishing themselves. The popular movements are the masses of people organizing in churches, farms, schools, artist unions, and so forth to say no to exploitation and yes to their traditions of collectivity and self-determination.

(3) Oppression of the majority who are poor within their countries by the army which enforces the will of the wealthy who rule the countries. Costa Rica may be a slight exception to this but even in this case President Arias comes from the upper-class in Costa Rica and has not lived the life of a working-class or poor person.

Over 100,000 Central Americans--most of these civilians and many children--have died because of conflict within Central America. Over 70,000 persons have been killed in El Salvador alone since 1980. The death squad openly operates throughout that country with the support

of U.S. dollars, military advice, and political backing (Camp and McLane, 1988). In 1988 El Salvador was receiving $1,750,000 per DAY from the United States government: this accounted for three-fourths of the El Saladoran budget.

In Guatemala, over 40,000 have died from death squads and several years of an open campaign to destroy indigenous people. Some years ago over 440 indigenous villages were completely destroyed along with everyone found present there.

Thousands of Central Americans have fled their countries for refuge in the United States because of oppression and economic upheaval. The Central American refugee population in the United States is now estimated at 2 million. Unfortunately, the U.S. government policy has also been repressive toward Salvadoran and Guatemalan refugees. Although large numbers have fled for safety, less than 3 per cent of the refugees from these two countries applying for political assylum have been granted it (CARACEN, 1988).

All of this information suggests that if you have students from Central America, they will probably be much more mature than other North American students of their age. They will have experienced much more hardship and have witnessed much more suffering than a typical North American student of the same age. They may also bring with them heavy emotional scars and burdens which will affect their behavior in ways that do not always seem obvious. Many come with symptoms of what has now been termed "post-traumatic stress." Teachers need to be sensitive to how such a background is reflected in classroom behavior and social interaction.

SINCE FEW REFUGEES OBTAIN ASYLUM, WILL THE FLOW ACROSS THE MEXICAN/U.S. BORDER DECREASE?

No. The thousands of refugees which cross in the United States exist because of U.S. support of oppressive governments. Despite American military aid to support existing oligarchies and their government, masses of people in Central American are organizing everywhere to change the unjust social and economic conditions which imprison them. If anything, the number of refugees from this area will undoubtedly increase in the near future.

During Spring 1989, Central American refugees applied for political asylum in Brownsville, Texas in record numbers--2,000 per week. They have been detained in open detention camps with little access to a lawyer and no way to leave except to sign a paper in English which states they agree to be deported. As this manual goes to print in 1989, Central American refugees are being kept in tents in an isolated area in Bayview, Texas while women are kept in "soft detention" nearby. Children are being detained in prisons with convicted felon juveniles (PROYECTO LIBERTAD, 1989). The situation in southern Texas is in a crisis. To summarize, immigration policies in the United States toward these refugees is becoming more and more

repressive.

Many refugees must remain illegal in the United States since they have little hope of being granted a temporary stay until war ceases in their country. Others can not apply for asylum because the documentation they must provide would prove dangerous to their families back in their home countries. It is now known that the INS regularly turns over asylum data to the Central Intellience Agency which shares it with governmental authorities in El Salvador. An application for asylum in the United States could mean death for relatives in El Salvador.

Children of refugees live under many restrictions and difficulties. Refugee families must do everything in the United States "unofficially." The adults work in fear that they will be turned in by fellow employees or abused by their employer who knows their secret. For women this carries the extra burden of rape. Since the more recent immigration law punishes employers for hiring "illegals", there are fewer job possibilities available for them. Parents probably have to work more than one job in order to rent an appartment. This means that children will spend more time taking care of each other and being alone. If they or their children become ill, they must have money for hospital entrance since they do not qualify for ANY AID at all. Refugee families are ofen the only source of income for their relatives back home. Unemployment is 40 per cent in El Salvador, for exampe. Therefore, much of the salary earned here is sent back to the home country to support relatives who have no source of income. Refugee families receive much economic pressure to provide for their families back home. In short, refugees and their children live under great stress here in the United States. All of this affects their involvement in their child's or brother/sister's education. Teachers must be sensitive to this fact.

[For more information about Central American refugees along the U.S/Mexican border, contact:]

PROYECTO LIBERTAD, 110A E. Jackson, Harlingen, Texas 78550

THE RIO GRANDE DEFENSE COMMITTEE, P.O. Box 2066, San Benito, Texas 78586

CARACEN (Central American Refugee Center), 5 Centre Street, Suite 9, Hempstead, NY 11550

MADISON BORDER SUPPORT GROUP, P.O. Box 55245, Madison, Wisconsin 53705

SAN DIEGO INTERFAITH TASK FORCE ON CENTRAL AMERICA, P.O. Box 3843, Las Mesa, California

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ARE ANY COUNTRIES IN THE CARIBBEAN LIKE CENTRAL AMERICA?

There are a variety of languages spoken in the Caribbean (see Figure 1) besides Spanish,. They include: Creolized English (Jamaica, Trinidad), British English, French Creole, and Haitian French Figure 5 shows the different countries in the Caribbean.

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DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

A great number of people have immigrated to the U.S. from the Dominican Republic to escape the extreme poverty and lack of educational opportunity in their country. "Dominicanos," as they are known in the Hispanic community, quickly take unskilled labor jobs such as housekeeping or factory work. They are not citizens, like the Puerto Ricans. Racially they range in color from brown skinned to dark black. Physically many display the African features resulting from many years of intermarriage and slavery. They share the same island of Hispaniola with Haiti--the poorest country in the Western hemisphere.

The people of the Dominican Republic have been struggling for democracy for many decades. They suffered under a cruel dictator--Trujillo--from 1930-1961. In 1963 Juan Bosch was elected President in the first free elections since the reign of dictators but one year later a military coup threw him out of power and he went into exile. The people of the Dominican Republic worked to restore him to power, but the American military intervened as it had previously in 1916 and smashed all of their attempts (Bosch, 1968; Szulc, 1966).

A vast majority of people from the Dominican Republic who are in the United States are from poor and working-class backgrounds. Often a parent will immigrate here and obtain one or more entry-level jobs as a custodian or groundskeeper or cleaner. They will send as much of their income home as possible and when they have saved a small amount, they will bring members of their family here to live. It is not surprising to find Dominicans living in the same area and related to one another since they get to the U.S. through help from those alreadr established here. There are now several barrios in New York City populated primarily by Dominicans.

If you have a student from the Dominican Republic, she/he will still have close family ties in the Dominican Republic and may visit there once a year. As soon as they are permitted, older children hold jobs outside of school so that they can contribute to the family income and provide themselves with up-to-date clothing. It will not be uncommon to find some students entering U.S. schools for the first time in their teenage years with very low academic preparation (as low as second grade). This may especially be true of females who received less priority in education from their families than males. What may appear to you as a learning disability or a perceptual

impairment may indeed only be the lack of minimal academic preparation. Be careful to observe how well these students form letters when they write on paper or how many simple mathematical calculations they can do (subtraction, addition, multiplication). If they do not do these well, it is possile they have only two or three years of equivalent formal education in their country. I have known many students in this category. They do not need remedial work because they never received instruction in the first place so classifying them into special education will only further their tendency to drop out. They need extra tuoring and lower level instruction. You might place them in an adult ed progam in addition to the regular school program or get a volunteer tutor to work with them. My experience has been that school systems are unprepared to provide appropriate services for these students and unfortunately do things which almost guarantee that these students drop out. Teachers need to advocate for these students and educate school personnel about the problem involved.

[For more information, contact:]

PENTAGONISM: A SUBSTITUTE FOR IMPERIALISM by Juan Bosch, 1968. NY: Grove Press.

DOMINICAN DIARY by Tad Szulc, 1966. NY: Del Publishing

* * *

HAITI

Haitians are not speakers of Spanish but they share a history of being colonized by Europe and a high rate poverty with other Caribbean countries. Haiti shares the island of Hispaniola with the Dominican Republic. Haitians living in the Dominican Republic have very low status. Some of the poorest Haitians work in sugar cane fields in the Dominican Republic where they receive slave wages.

Haiti is poor. The worst part of the story is that it is poorer

today than it was 200 years ago. Intensive exploitation of the soil by an increasing population has led to soil erosion and loss of much arable land. For many years, the country has been governed by cruel dictators who have compounded the miseries of the people by increased drug running. Haitians have been pushed to migrate to the U.S.--sometimes risking their lives in flimsy boats. Once in the United States, they do not find an easy life as they confront racial discrimination and other problems. But even such obstacles are better than starving to death.

As far as Haitian students are concerned, many follow the same path of immigration which was described above regarding those from the Dominican Republic. However, more and more of the Haitians migrating to the U.S. are members of the middle-class. They have much easier access to migration and the means to get here. Of course, students from such families will come with more educational preparation than the poor receive in Haiti. These may be your students tomorrow.

4. LITERACY

THE STUDENTS I TEACH CAN'T READ AND WRITE WELL IN EITHER SPANISH OR ENGLISH. ARE THEY "A-LINGUAL"?

No. This is a negative and unscientific term which is not used in language education because it does not enlarge our understanding of the language process. Unlike oral language which is learned as a natural process of socialization that takes place through adult-child interaction, written language must be taught. By the age of five years, the vast majority of oral language has been acquired but written language has only begun. When children have not been given enough time to develop their academic thinking and literacy skills in a language, they will not be able to read and write. We can see many cases of this in monolinguals. The growing rate of illiteracy in the United States indicates this. Many native speakers of English graduate from high school without being able to read and write English well. The problem becomes even more complex when another language is added.

One thing we know very well. The development of reading and writing skills assumes the prior development of oral skills. Sometimes schools and teachers have misadvised Hispanic parents to stop using their native language with their children and to use only English. The teacher first sees the child when she/he is in her/his "silent period"--a necessary stage in language acquisition. At this time listening comprehension is being totally developed and the child speaks very little. It may seem to the uninformed teacher that this child needs more exposure to English to get her/him talking. This is false. The "silent period" is a necessary stage of language development through children children pass when learning a second language. So when the Hispanic parent takes the advice of such a teacher and stops using the native language with her/his child, the development of concepts in Spanish--the mode through which this child has learned to think--is stopped. Thus the child no longer has a base through which to learn the task of reading. This only lengthens the process since oral English has not yet been acquired. The Hispanic student then becomes two or more grades behind her/his English-speaking peers.

Research shows that students need at least five years to develop adequate literacy/thinking skills in a second language. This means that a teenager who moves to the United States and enters ninth grade will always be a little behind in his academic use of English. Imagine an English speaking student getting only five years of education. Could

they write research reports, essays, and read high school textbooks? No. They could only partially function in such an academic use of English. Hispanic students need lots of help in their academic development in English. Such students need special intervention programs to meet their needs. Teachers should recognize that students put in mainstream settings should not be required to perform equivalently to students who have already had nine or ten years of academic English.

The purpose of bilingual education programs is to help the child develop a solid academic and literacy foundation in their first language to which English is later added. If the cognitive foundation is there in the first language, it can easily be transferred to other languages, once they are acquired (Cummins, 1981). Unfortunately, bilingual programs are based on economic and political decisions--not pedagogical research. These programs often are required by state policies to LIMIT development of the first language to a three year maximum and even in those three years teachers may be required to devote only 30 per cent to thinking and writing in the native language-- Spanish. The result is that students don't develop the concept base in Spanish which is necessary for entering English-speaking classrooms. Then they are behind in both languages and teachers call them "a-lingual!"

BUT HOW CAN A TEACHER HELP SUCH A STUDENT?

If you aren't fluent in Spanish, the best help you can give in English is to identify the concept level the student is operating at and provide lots of opportunities in which the student can use English to think, problem solve, write, and read both in class and outside of it. Start where the student is, identify what is relevant to their lives, and provide learning opportunities which motivate them.

Whole language approaches can be very helpful. This means that you don't teach tiny points of language which are irrelevant to students or which do not have a meaningful social context. The reading approach which focuses on isolated skills apart from the integration of these into a motivating and relevant social task is not helpful. Many years ago it was thought that the teacher should focus on separate tasks, such as, getting the main idea, identifying details, identifying the type of paragraph style, etc. Some teachers forgot that the content of the material and the context in which it was presented were important. They typically gave students reading exercises which focused them on skills rather than context or meaning. This has been the predominant approach in basic skills programs where Hispanic students are often placed. These reductionist approaches to teaching do NOT help the Hispanic student struggling in the academic use of language. Sometimes students seem to enjoy the security of such approaches because they can quickly rate their achievement, but in fact reductionist classroom styles do not result in healthy language and concept development (Wong-Fillmore, 1986). We now know that the essence of language and concept development is meaning in a social context (Shuy, 1981; 1984).

When language is abstracted from its social context and relevancy, little life-long growth or learning occurs.

Whole language approaches which integrate a variety of academic skills into a meaningful, relevant, social context can be very helpful to those students who are developing academic English. The whole language approach follows a theme and introduces a variety of academic skills which involve oral and written English in a meaningful context, e.g. map reading, graph making, story telling, book reading, composition writing.

CASE STUDY: One teacher I observed used an abridged version of the story of Ichabod Crane as the theme for a whole language approach with her high school class of limited-English proficency students. The entire unit took the class about one week to complete. The teacher first read the story aloud to the class, pointing to the pictures in the book and additional visual aids she had prepared to provide meaning to the text. The class then had a discussion of the setting, characters, scenery, time frame, etc. in the story. At this time unfamiliar vocabulary was introduced. The following day students were involved in a geography lesson as they identified the location of the story on a map of the United States and of New Jersey. Other questions were posed, such as, "What states border New Jersey?" One day they were assigned a mathematical problem of calculating the distance from the location of the story to their own school using the scale on their map. Later they researched the life of the author and wrote a short biography of him in their own words. Finally, they re-read the story and discussed some possible interpretations of its ending. They discussed their own personal experiences in being fooled or tricked by someone, how it happened, and what they felt. Each of them then wrote a brief essay about this personal experience.

MY NEW STUDENT CAN HARDLY WRITE HIS OWN NAME IN ENGLISH, LET ALONE COPY AN ASSIGNMENT FROM THE BOARD. SHOULDN'T I REFER HIM TO THE CHILD STUDY TEAM?

No. First talk to the professional(s) in your building who are trained in second language acquisition: the bilingual education teacher, the ESL teacher, or others. They may provide insight into this problem. Let them be the ones to refer such a student to the child study team. We have too many instances of students who have NO HANDICAP, other than a lack of language or a lack of formal education in their home country, who have been classified as learning disabled or perceptually impaired.

CASE STUDY: I remember the case of a nine-year old child who had been raised in Jamaica in a remote rural area. Because his family had moved around a lot for seasonal work and he did not have much access to consistent formal education, when he came to the United States, he was unable to read and write. His only problem was a LACK OF FORMAL EDUCATION. In September he entered school. The school system in the United States first placed him by age because they assumed he spoke English so there was no problem. He could not function in third grade

so they then put him in kindergarten. As awkward as that was socially for him, he seemed to adjust and in only three months had reached a basal reading stage. But when the special education team saw how low his California Achievement Test scores were, they decided to refer him for psychological testing. He was unaccostumed to using a pencil and he had only begun to recognize shapes; he didn't do well on the eye-hand coordination test or other tests that involved the use of third-grade reading and writing. He spoke a creolized form of Jamaican English so he probably had not yet learned to totally comprehend Standard English--the language in which the directions for the tests were given. Two weeks later this child was classified as severely percepually impaired and placed in a special school. He was now with peers his own age, but he did not do well there. He was too bright for the other children in his class and they began to hit him and degrade his accent. One month later he began to exhibit emotional problems. This child was damaged by a system which failed to understand a simple fact: the child performed poorly in school because he HAD NEVER BEEN TO SCHOOL. He did not need remediation; he needed time to develop initial reading skills.

Test scores obtained in a language one does not speak are invalid. Tests which probe for disabilities when the problem may simply be a lack of schooling also lead to unfortunate decisions to classify a student. Once a student is classified they are labeled and given remedial rather than developmental help. A student can not remediate what they have not yet learned. When the problem is lack of access to school or lack of language, students do NOT NEED remediation, labeling, or tracking. They need time to develop literacy skills just as five and six-year old native speakers of Standard English are given time for their development of literacy skills. And they need teachers who will help them develop.

HOW CAN I IDENTIFY THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A LEARNING DISABILITY AND A LANGUAGE PROBLEM?

This is a very complex process. It should not be undertaken using tests whose directions are only given in English, unless the child has been in an English-speaking environment for at least ONE year or more. The best means of assessing a learning disability is through the native language. School districts which do not have learning disability specialists who can assess in the students' native language should contract with other districts. This is the only fair approach. Or they can wait until the child has had at least two years of English language exposure and can understand the verbal and written instructions of learning disability tests before they use such tests.

I THINK A HISPANIC CHILD IN MY CLASSROOM HAS A LEARNING DISABILITY. THE CHILD STUDY TEAM CONTINUES TO THINK THE ONLY PROBLEM IS LANGUAGE. WHAT ARE SOME SYMPTOMS OF A LEARNING DISABILITY AND HOW CAN WE INFORMALLY ASSESS THESE WITHOUT USING A LOT OF ENGLISH?

Sometimes limited-English proficiency students with learning disabilities are assessed much too late because there is no one available who knows both about second language development AND special education. If you have anyone in your building or in your school district with this dual training, bring them to your class for one period and let them observe you working with the student in question. Their advice might be very helpful in getting help for this student. You might be doing something which provokes the problem and in this case they could give you some suggestions. If you don't know anybody with dual training and fluency in both Spanish and English, you might invite a fellow teacher who is bilingual in Spanish and English to assist you in class by giving directions in Spanish to assess for some basic competencies. These competencies apply to any student no matter what their age but the methods and materials you will use will of course vary by age.

Hargrove (1981) has suggested the following eight basic skills which can reveal learning disabilities:

(a) discrimination of shapes
(b) visual-motor coordination
(c) visual recall
(d) auditory recall
(e) vocabulary and verbal fluency
(f) rote memory
(g) sequencing of events
(h) use of arithmetic and symbols

Discrimination of shapes can be informally assessed among young children by using toys of varying geometric shapes. The shape box which requires children to put various three dimensional shapes into a box by pushing them through a one dimensional hole with that shape can be used for elementary school children. Wooden puzzles with big pieces might also be used.

Older students could be shown a triangle, a square, rectangle, and a parallelogram one at a time and asked to draw them. Language is not necessary. The teacher simply models one sample for the student. CAUTION: Students who have little formal education will have difficulty doing this even though they are not learning disabled.

Visual-Motor Coordination can be assessed in older students by the use of scissors or hobbies, such as, sewing, carpentry, etc. In younger children drawing simple figures might be used. Observing students as they engage in artwork can also reveal problems in visual-motor coordination.

Visual Recall includes the ability for short-term recall. To assess this without a lot of language, the teacher can put four different objects on a tray and show the tray to the student. The tray is taken away and then the student is shown another tray with additional items on it. They are to choose those items they saw on the first tray. Directions for this exercise can be given through modeling, unless the teacher speaks the native language of the student.

Auditory Recall can only be assessed if the teacher is certain the student knows the English words to be used. Commands can be used to assess auditory recall. First the teacher presents one command at a time. (She can use "Simon Says" or another game to do so.) Once she is certain the student understands each verb very well, the teacher can give three or more commands at one time and observe how many the student can replicate.

Vocabulary and Verbal Fluency can only be assessed in the native language if the student is at a beginning or intermediate level. Students are usually too intimidated to show their mistakes at these levels and so assessment would be misleading.

Rote Memory can easily be assessed by having the student count to twenty, recite the alphabet, finish a nursery rhyme, poem, or song. The teacher can give part of the set and allow students to finish it. For example,

Teacher (with 10 objects before her): 1, 2, 3, 4, 5
Student: 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

or

Teacher (singing the alphabet song): h, i, j, k,
Student: l , m , n, o, p

Sequence refers to the ability to understand the relationship between events and the sequence of events. This might be assessed in youth and adults by presenting pictures of children in a family and selecting out the baby and next oldest to see if the student can arrange the remainder in sequence of birth. FOr young children, a story familiar to the student is selected and pictures are presented. The student must put them in order of their occurrence in the story.

Arithmetic and Symbols include the ability to grasp the concept of arithmetic functions, e.g. three pencils and two pencils make five pencils in all. This can be assessed beyond six or seven years of age by using identical objects and placing them in sets of differing numbers. (For example, a stack of three pencils and another stack of four pencils.) The student then selects the equivalent number from a box (seven pencils).

SOME HISPANIC STUDENTS I HAVE DO WONDERFULLY AND OTHERS ARE FAR BEHIND? WHY?

Class background accounts indirectly for many of these differences. Some Hispanic students may come have parents who are white collar professionals. These families are fairly well off in their home country, but come to the United States for better economic security and an advanced material life style. Other parents may be Latin American college students who have married and begun to raise a family here. These students often are of a middle-class background as well.

Some Hispanic students do not come to the United States at all. They and their parents are born in regions where Spanish predominates, such as the Southwest, California, and Puerto Rico. If they move frequently or are not taught in their native language, Spanish, long enough, these students may not develop the academic language base necessary for middle school or junior high school. Cummins (1981; 1986) has referred to this as the "threshold." These students gradually get farther and farther behind their peers and once they reach high school, they find it difficult to catch up. These students don't usually do as well as other students who did have access to developing a conceptual base in their first language. The literature on the high drop out rate among Mexican-Americans suggests that this pattern is common. Intervention is needed during junior-high years or before. They need to develop a strong conceptual academic base in Spanish. Bilingual education programs can help them do this.

Another group of Hispanic students represent the working class and poor from Latin America. The countries of Latin America are Third World countries--the majority of their populations are poor or working class. Children raised in such settings may not have always been in school. In war torn areas, school can not go on normally, if at all. El Salvador and Guatemala are examples of this. For poor families, education is very important but when there is not enough money to provide food or parents become ill, older children may be required to leave school to take care of siblings or to work alongside their parents. Poor students may have had short or long-term absences which kept them out of school. In addition, public schools in Latin American countries may not charge tuition, but they are not free of expenses. Families must still provide uniforms or proper clothes, pencils, paper, and books. With several children in one family, this expense can be too great to send all the children in a big family to school. Children may have to go to school without essentials or good clothing, and the other students or teachers may make fun of them.

In some cases, parochial and unfit teachers cause Hispanic students to stop coming to school by their discriminatory treatment of them. The second case study below describes one such instance.

CASE STUDY: Some of my adult education students from Puerto Rico who were raised in very poor rural families recounted to me the struggles of their childhood. One woman mentioned that as a child she only had one pair of shoes to her name. She would remove them to walk five miles to school on a rocky terrain so that the shoes would last. When they wore out or she outgrew them, she had to stop going to school because her parents could not afford another pair of shoes and her classmates made fun of her coming without shoes.

CASE STUDY: One female Hispanic student in my adult ed class who functioned at only the second grade reading level in Spanish told me that when she entered first grade in Puerto Rico, the teacher saw her trying to write with her left hand. In traditional thinking the left hand is a taboo. The teacher beat her left hand and arm until it was black and blue. When her mother saw this, she removed her permanently from school. The woman still writes with her left hand, but she still has a terrible fear of teachers and school.

WHAT ARE THE IMPLICATIONS OF ALL THIS FOR MY CONTENT OR MAINSTREAM CLASS?

The first point is that some Hispanic students who have been more fortunate may come with a developed conceptual base. Even if they do not know English, they will do well academically after a year or two of English. But others will come with no academic base and maybe little-or-no academic background at all. Of all Hispanic students, they will need the most support and help from you.

The less literacy background students have in their first language, the longer it will take them to acquire advanced literacy skills, such as, writing a composition or reading a textbook or writing a research paper, in a second language. They need at least five years of school to become literate enough to do these things. If a student arrives in the United States as teenager, they encounter many logistic problems in high schools. For example, suppose a Hispanic child knows no English and has had a weak educational background in Spanish. Since high schools rarely permit a student to stay there beyond age 17 or 18, this student would obviously not be able to obtain the necessary time to develop adequately academically. They would have a very limited chance of graduating from high school. What is the recourse for this sixteen-year old student? Many may drop out. Others continue for one year and then enter a part-time program in adult education to seek their GED or high school equivalency diploma. Unfortunately, many are trapped between two systems: public high school and adult education, and they do not receive the development in literacy skills which they need. They can not enter adult education classes because they are too young but when they enroll in regular high schools, they are put immediately into mainstream content classes which are completely beyond their competency.

ARE THERE ANY PROGRAMATIC APPROACHES TO HELP HISPANIC STUDENTS WHO HAVE LOW LITERACY LEVELS?

Some middle schools and high schools which have enough limited-English proficient students to make a class have begun to provide content classes for ESL students. In one school district I am familiar with, beginning and intermediate level limited-English proficient students and students from countries where a dialect of English is spoken (Jamaica, Trinidad) are scheduled into science, history, and math classes for ESL students. These classes are taught by content teachers who have had some training in adapting their teaching of content areas to the language level of limited-English proficient students. The students also receive two classes from the ESL teacher--one focused on conversation and the other concentrating on the development of study skills and academic English. Such a unique program has been effective for this school of 1,500 which has about 30 beginning and intermediate limited-English proficient students, many of whom are Hispanic. The most difficult aspect of such a programmatic approach is the scheduling of classes and the training of content teachers.

I DON'T SPEAK OR READ SPANISH. HOW CAN I KNOW THE LITERACY LEVEL OF THE HISPANIC STUDENTS ENTERING MY CLASS?

This question primarily applies to the middle-school and high school level. Although as was illustrated in the case study given previously of the Jamaican child, if younger children have had hardly any formal education, it can also be problematic for them. However, at the middle-school and hign school level, it is essential for teachers to informally determine the literacy level of their students. Age means nothing if little formal education has been obtained. English-based tests, such as the CAT (Califonia Achievement Test) will tell you little about the student's level of formal education since the score will be so low it means nothing. If you do not have a teacher trained in bilingual education in your school, you may have to resort to some very simple informal means of assessment which you can use. Such types of assessment will only give you a hint at the student's level of formal eduation equivalent to the U.S. system, but at least you will not assume that the student's only problem is the lack of English.

WHAT ARE SOME SIMPLE INFORMAL METHODS I CAN USE TO ASSESS ACADEMIC BACKGROUND?

First, you can ask them for general background information, such as, how many years they went to school, where, and when. If the student speaks no English at all, you will have to have another Hispanic student in the class or in school translate for you.

Secondly, you can give the student a blank file card to fill out their name, address, phone number, and country of origin. First complete one for yourself in front of the student to illustrate what

you are asking. While students are filling out the card, you can observe how much at ease they are in putting down this basic information. Does it take them a long time? Are their letters even or completely uneven and unreadable? All of these observations are clues to basic literacy competencies. Students who take a very long time to put down their name and who can not form equal sizxe letters may lack initial literacy skills. If this is the case, you may not need to continue more of this informal assessment.

Thirdly, you can also give students several math computation exercises: addition, subtraction, and multiplication. Most students can complete this only after at least three or four years of formal schooling. You can begin with two problems at a time: first, single digit addition, next double digit addition. If they have no problem with these, then try single digit subtraction and next, double digit subtraction. After these you can move on up to single digit multiplication and finally double digit multiplication. The purpose is not so much to assess their accuracy in mathematics but to determine what academic levels they might have completed. Math is usually a good informal indicator of this. At these beginning levels the problems are fairly universal and do not require much knowledge of English or North American culture. In the use of this informal assessment, you want to pay attention to the student's familiarity with how to do these calculations rather than their accuracy. Remember that there are culturl differences in how math is taught.

Fourth, you can ask them to write one or two paragraphs in Spanish introducing themselves to you. This can be used even if you don't know Spanish. If they can't write or compose in Spanish, you will receive little or nothing from them. If they can, you can take the sample to someone in your school who knows Spanish and ask them to evaluate the sentence structure, spelling, and punctuation. All of these are simple clues to help you.

SOME OF MY HISPANIC STUDENTS DO MATH COMPUTATIONS IN VERY DIFFERENT WAYS. ISN'T ALL MATH UNIVERSAL?

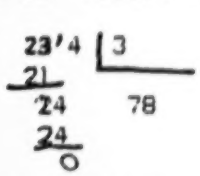
No. Mathematics symbols and the teaching of math is as cultural as other forms of learning. Many students schooled in Central and South America do division in the following way. For example, "8 divided by 4 equals 2" would look like this:

$$8 \,\big|\, 4 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2$$

And if the dividend is more than two digits as in (234 divided by 3 = 78), they would then count off by pairs by using a comma and then divide the divisor into each pair at a time. Normally all work would be conducted in their head rather than on paper:

$$23'4 \,\big|\, 3 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 78$$

In some countries, students are taught to conduct some work on paper rather than in their heads. Their work would look like this:



The method of addition and subtraction in Latin American countries is similar to the U.S. method with some variation. Sometimes both are done across rather in columns:

37 + 41 = 78

72 - 49 = 23

This means that fractional work may be done across rather than in columns:

1 2/5 + 2 1/5 + 1/5 = 3 4/5

Even more importantly, the symbols which are used in Latin America are also quite different from those in the United States. A decimal is marked by a comma. To separate off thousands, one uses a period or an apostrophe. For example, the number eighty-five thousand and four-tenths would look as follows:

85.000,4 or 85'000,4

The following amount: 44.500,$ refers to forty-four thousand and five hundred dollars rather than forty-four dollars and fifty cents.

OK. I NOW HAVE IDENTIFIED THAT I HAVE SOMEONE WHO IS NOT VERY LITERATE IN SPANISH? NOW WHAT SHOULD I DO?

You should NOT refer this student to the child study team or special education because the student does not have a remedial problem. There is nothing physically wrong with this student and they should not be classified. The student simply needs an opportunity to develop initial literacy skills. If any testing is done with such a student, it MUST BE DONE IN SPANISH. If testing is done by psychologists who have no understanding of illiteracy, a misdiagnosis is likely. Test scores of students with limited literacy skills may be similar to those of students with a perceptual impairment or a learning disability. If you can not prevent such testing, I recommend that you be present to observe. Your observations could be very helpful to the child study team and the parents of the student.

DON'T STUDENTS WHO LACK LITERACY IN ANY LANGUAGE NEED THE SAME SERVICES AS SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENTS?

No, they need different services. With them there is nothing to remediate because they never had access to initial literacy. Would you give remedial classes for the handicapped to a three- or four-year old English-speaking child who couldn't read, write or do fourth grade math? It's the same case for an older student who is illiterate. What they need is access to initial literacy instruction, time, and a good teacher.

Initial literacy instruction for adults must include work on shape and letter recognition as well as the use of a pencil or pen to form the letters of the alphabet. Much of this development is similar to what young children go through in development; however, adults must be treated differently in pedagogy.

[For materials which focus on ESL literacy, consult:]

ESL FOR THE WORKPLACE by Joyce Penfield. 1984. Penfield Associates, P.O. Box 4493, Highland Park, NJ 08904

INTEGRATING ESL IN THE WORKPLACE by Joyce Penfield, 1984. Penfield Associates.

ESL LITERACY FOR ADULT LEARNERS by Wayne Haverson and Judith Haynes, 1982. Washington, D.C.L Center for Applied Linguistics.

ESL THROUGH CONTENT AREA INSTRUCTION by JoAnn Crandall, ed. 1987. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics.

READING IN THE BILINGUAL CLASSROOM: LITERACY & BILITERACY by Kenneth Goodman, Yetta Goodman, & Barbara Flores, 1978. Rosslyn, Va.: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

THE ENGLISH-SPANISH CONNECTION by Eleanor Thonis. 1983. Northvale, NJ: Santillana Pub. Co.

I HAVE TWO NEW STUDENTS FROM TAIWAN AND JAPAN WHO CAME WITH LITTLE ENGLISH BACKGROUN. THEY ARE ALREADY DOING BETTER ACADEMICALLY THAN MY MEXICAN-AMERICAN STUDENTS. WHY?

We must be careful here not to fall into stereotypes. In the first instance, students who are permitted to immigrate here from Japan and Taiwan are usually from middle- or upper-class families. Mexican-American students may be from poor, working-class, or middle-class backgrounds, but since there is a high rate of unemployment and poverty in Mexican-American communities, it is likely that more Mexican-American children have working-class backgrounds than those immigrating from Japan or Taiwan. The parents of newly immigrated Japanese or Taiwanese students are probably business people or

white-collar professionals. This means that in their home country these students had access to prestigious education and were valued in their society. In addition, their parents introduced them to a life-style which prepared them for the middle-class culture of North American schools. Most importantly teachers they encountered valued their life style because it was similar to that of the school, i.e. middle-class. Currently the social context favors new immigrants from Taiwan or Japan and this helps them tremendously in their adjustment and language development.

Mexican-Americans, on the other hand, encounter a social context which is hostile to them. Their history as colonized peoples influences how they are treated. Ogbu (1986) refers to them as a "caste-like" minority. Discrimination is a daily occurrence for many Mexican-Americans since Euro-Americans commonly have power to make decisions affecting them even when they outnumber the Euro-Americans. The fact that many Mexican-Americans are working-class and Spanish-speaking while schools and most teachers are middle-class and English-speaking leads to cultural discontinuity between the home and the school (Heath, 1983; Ogbu, 1982). But the greatest problem posed for caste-like minorities is their lack of access to power and status in school and the society at large.

Mexican-American students have a high drop-out rate. Cummins (1984) has linked this high rate of failure to their disenfranchisement in the United States. He uses very interesting comparative data between Mexican-American students raised in the United States and schooled only in North American schools vs. Mexican students schooled in Mexico through grade four. Even though the former group of students was fluent in English, the latter group surpassed them academically within one year of being schooled in the United States.

A similar pattern has been noted for other ethnic groups in other countries. For example, Finnish students who are a low-status group in Sweden have a high record of academic failure there but a strong record of academic success in Australia where they are regarded as a high-status group (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1979). Ogbu (1986) points out how forceful the social context is on the development of minorities. Caste-like minority children are exposed to conditions that predispose them to school failure even before they come to school. These conditions include limited parental access to educational resources, interactional styles at home that are quite different from the school (Heath 1985; Gumperz and Hernandez-Chavez, 1975), use of Spanish language in the home, and a history of colonization and subordination by the dominant group.

5. THE CLASSROOM

IN MY HIGH SCHOOL HISPANICS ARE PUT IN MAINSTREAM CLASSES BEFORE THEY ARE FLUENT IN ENGLISH. WOULDN'T IT BE BETTER TO GIVE THEM AN INTENSIVE YEAR OF ENGLISH BEFORE PUTTING THEM IN WITH ENGLISH SPEAKERS?

Yes, perhaps, but remember it takes two or more years for youngsters to become fluent in a language and five years to become academically fluent. What would happen during this year in which they are ONLY learning English? They would have contact only with non-English speakers and thus would miss the socialization which provides the context for natural language development and cultural adjustment. In addition, they would have absolutely no academic development whatsoever. For this reason, an intensive English situation might be good for a few months but more than that it be unwise. Students would be one or two years behind in their academic development and their English development might not be as fast because of the minimal social contact with native speakers.

Sometimes teachers who ask this question operate with a misconception that second language learning is an instant process which is finished in a few months. This is far from true. Remember that when a native speaker reaches 14 years of age she/he has had 15 years of English language development, eight years of which focused on the academic context of English. How could we expect someone just learning English to acquire the same skill in a few months or even in one year. It just can not happen. Even if a limited-English proficient student did have intensive exposure to English for several months, they would still NOT have the same level of English development and academic skills as their native speaking peers. They need several years of support and help to catch up to monolinguals. Their progress in the second language is often incredible even though compared to native speakers it seems very minimal.

WHAT ACTIVITIES CAN I GIVE THE HISPANIC STUDENTS IN CLASS TO KEEP THEM BUSY WHILE I TEACH THE OTHER STUDENTS?

I know this sounds logical but it is based on several incorrect assumptions. You do not have two separate classes; you have one class. Segregating out the students won't solve the problem and it will also make you a little crazy. If the Spanish-speaking students have a low level of English proficiency, your major job is to help integrate them socially into the class in ways which will assist their natural second language development. Peer support and acceptance is the strongest tool you have here. The second best tool you have is to create class activities which provide a maximum amount

of peer interaction and use as many visual and concrete symbols in the process as is possible. Cooperative learning and collective work are the best examples of these. In this way, Hispanic students can feel a social part of the class, will join in and act as if they know what they are doing, will model the language and academic behavior of their peers, and will succeed.

One way in which you can begin this process is to officially include the Hispanic student on the first day she/he enters your class. Often this may not be at the beginning of the year. The Hispanic student will not only be struggling with English but also with adjustment. You can welcome her/him into your class with an activity which requires everyone's participation. For example, divide the class into pairs and have partners interview each other on the following topic: How I got my first name and what it means. Each pair then introduces their partner to the class reporting back what they have learned. If there isn't enough time to do this, take a few minutes to present the new student to the class and have the class summarize what they are doing for her/his benefit. At that time, a student volunteer can serve as a buddy to help answer other questions and to guide the new student into the class routine for the first few weeks.

BUT HOW CAN I BE EXPECTED TO TEACH HISPANIC STUDENTS IN MY MAINSTREAM CLASS IF THEY AREN'T FLUENT IN ENGLISH?

Obviously you can't teach them content by telling or talking or lecturing. They are missing the necessary ingredient on which teacher-directed learning depends, i.e. fluency in English. Psychological research now suggests that teacher-centered activity like lecturing and talking doesn't really work for English-speaking students either. Maybe you need to rethink what learning is all about. Many of us believe that individuals learn by being engaged in some topic which is clearly relevant and important to their life which motivates them. For example, you are probably reading this manual right now because you have Hispanic students and are seeking answers to your own questions. Therefore, this information is relevant and motivating to you. That is the first and most important condition for learning.

Furthermore research now suggests that for youngsters most learning comes about as they build and construct knowledge. Being handed "knowledge" does not result in learning. The process of discovery which involves many trials and errors along the way when it is set in a natural and social context results in maximum learning (Snuy, 1984; Krashen and Terrell, 1983). When students do not already have the tool of English, they also need CUES in the context to infer the meaning for the new language symbols they are encountering. For the limited-English proficient student, learning is best supported by highly interactional contexts involving peer interaction and contexts in which visual cues provide the context for inferring meaning

(Ventriglia, 1982). The best learning environment for beginning level limited-English proficient students is a student-oriented one in which a discovery approach is followed involving lots of peer involvement and hands-on activities.

One program which has built on the principles mentioned above is the Santillana system for math and science development which places both subjects into a social context for students. FINDING OUT/DESCUBRIMIENTO (De Avila and Duncan, 1985) provides help to the teacher in using this methodology with elementary school students. The learning materials and approach engage students in completing experiments in small groups, discussing the results, writing reports, and analyzing information scientifically. Group learning, such as lab experiments in science with lots of visual aid and social interaction with peers, or math cooperative problem solving are examples of a supportive, interactional context which would be helpful to limited-English proficient Hispanic students.

WHAT STRATEGIES CAN I USE IN MY MAINSTREAM HIGH SCHOOL CLASS TO HELP LIMITED-ENGLISH PROFICIENT HISPANIC STUDENTS UNDERSTAND THE TEXTBOOK?

There are several things you can do. Some of them are simple and just part of good teaching. Others may seem elementary for high school but they are necessary to support the learning of limited-English proficient students in your mainstream class. Here are some tips:

1. First provide the motivation and context for the content of the lesson to be read. Ask questions to promote thinking and inquiry into the topic. Elicit personal stories which address the issue. Get students interested and motivated.

If you've ever watched "Meet Mr. Wizard" on television, you will remember how he first introduces the student to some intriguing everyday phenomena, queries them about it, and then proceeds to provide explanation through further examples. This is the model you want to simulate--more or less.

2. Preview the lesson in the text with the students. Go quickly through the assigned reading eliciting thoughts from students about the titles and sub-titles, pictures, graphs, and summary. This should prepare students for active thinking and give them advance help in reading sub-titles of pictures and graphs.

3. Present the 5-10 key terms needed to understand the lesson. Remember that terms which appear easy to you may be difficult for the learner of English. Colloquial expressions are the most difficult because they are Germanic based and do not share any similarities or cognates with Spanish. Students should define these terms or identify

synonyms and understand them BEFORE the lesson is given. (In the best cases, this step would be integrated with Step #1.)

4. Present the lesson orally but only one concept at a time. Support your explanation of the concept by pictures, gestures, diagrams, visual aids, drawing on the board, examples, the classroom context, and writing on the board. Try to use more than one of these at once. The more of these you use for each concept, the more support you are providing for the learner to infer meaning.

5. When presenting the lesson or speaking with limited-English proficient Hispanic students, speak more slowly. Use shorter and simpler sentences, using lots of facial expressions and repetitions. Slow the pace of your talk and avoid non-standard or colloquial expressions which may only cause confusion.

6. If possible, provide a brief summary of the lesson or an outline of the key points which students can use to guide them in the lesson.

7. Guide students to read for MEANING. If there are too many new vocabulary words per page, encourage them to get the gist of the lesson rather than look up every word.

8. Help limited-English proficient students put the new information from the book and from your presentation into a schema which gives it meaning. Try to encourage them to use the following formats:

(a) an outline
(b) a graph or diagram
(c) a drawing, cartoon, or picture
(d) classifications or lists
(e) a written brief summary of the contents.

9. Give an assignment which involves collaborative work with others in class and the personal application of the material. If students work in teams with native speakers of English, Hispanic students can receive the oral input and social contact which they will help further their language and concept development.

Give limited-English proficient Hispanic students an opportunity to succeed by giving assignments which involve artistic skills or home projects which apply the information in the lesson. For example, for a lesson on the Civil War in the United States students might write a letter taking the perspective of a Union soldier fighting on the battle fields.

HOW CAN I GRADE STUDENTS IN THE SAME WAY IF THEY ARE SO DIFFERENT FROM MAINSTREAM STUDENTS?

The answer is: you can't grade those fluent in English and those not yet proficient in English using the same "yardstick." It would not be fair because each student has entered your class at a different point in their development of the second language and their

experience with the U.S. educational system. If you do not use a different grading system which is appropriate for new learners of English, they will most likely receive an F for several semesters. By the time they are proficient in English, they will have already given up succeeding in content/academic areas. This sets the stage for another "drop out." An unfair grading procedure can be very destructive. There is absolutely no positive purpose this approach has for the educational development of the non-English speaking student.

Most school districts will permit a P/F option for the English learner. Many mainstream teachers are unaware of this option. If it isn't available, you must work with your ESL teacher(s) to convince the administration of the necessity of a different approach for the beginning and intermediate ESL student in the mainstream setting. Assure them that you will still be grading these students, except the criterion will be either the effort they make or the progress they have achieved. Most ESL students make a tremendous amount of language progress in a short amount of time and many give double the effort of the native speakers of English.

WHAT'S THE MOST EFFECTIVE METHOD TO TEACH LEP STUDENTS TO READ?

There is no ONE method which is most effective. Any approach which relies heavily on oral language development and which contextualizes language is superior for beginning ESL students. Since one can't read what one can't yet speak, the base of language development is critical before the process of making meaning out of print is begun. Initially reading should consist of using oral English to talk about stories or make up stories from sequenced pictures. Students should begin to make their own books. The writing process should be the beginning of the reading process rather than vice-versa. And all of this must continue without undue attention and criticism to the details of language--that is the spelling, grammar, and so forth. The initial focus must be on MEANING and COMMUNICATION rather than ACCURACY and PERFECTION.

I have just described a developmental and process approach to literacy. It is consistent with language development in general. Actually, in a developmental approach, distinctions between literacy and oral development are artificial. The whole language must be attacked and integrated into the life of the student in order to be completely holistic and developmental. This is exactly the way native speakers of English acquire language in their first five years and it can be adapted conceptually to any age or proficiency level of second language speaker.

SHOULD SCHOOL LIBRARIANS BUY BOOKS IN SPANISH FOR HISPANIC STUDENTS? DOESN'T THIS RUIN THEIR DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH?

Students need to be exposed in and out of class to books which motivate them and address their own development--their own life styles. They need to have books in their library which show Hispanic faces and communities and life styles with which they can identify. These books need to be in both English and Spanish. But it is very important that school libraries obtain books in Spanish for Hispanic students of all age levels and reading competencies. Just because students are learning a second language doesn't mean they should abandon development of their native tongue. Reading in Spanish is vital to the personal and intellectual development of Hispanic students. Books in Spanish are essential for schools. Research in language and cognitive development suggests that concepts learned in the first language are easily transferred into the second language language as fluency is obtained (McLaughlin, 1982; Cummins, 1981). This means that it is not only healthy but also helpful if Hispanic students read in Spanish. They should be encouraged to do so and parents should be encouraged to read Spanish books to their children and discuss them together.

(For book titles, consult:)

BILINGUAL MATERIALS CATALOG. The National Hispanic University. 255 East 14th St., Oakland, CA 94606.

THE BILINGUAL PUBLICATIONS COMPANY. 1966 Broadway, New York, NY 10023.

INTERRACIAL BOOKS FOR CHILDREN BULLETIN, 1841 Broadway, New York, NY 10023

OTHER KIDS IN THE CLASSROOM MAKE FUN OF THE HISPANIC STUDENT'S ACCENT. WHAT CAN I DO?

Why not sit down and talk about differences with the ENTIRE CLASS? What does it mean to be different? How do they feel about it? Don't people wear different clothes, have different hair styles, drive different cars, have different thoughts, and also talk differently? Students could do a quick unit on this topic. Here is your opportunity to help the non-Hispanic students grow out of their narrow and biased world view. It is also useful to deal with biases which non-Hispanic students may have been facing from their peers and to begin talking about WHY students use biases against each other and how it makes them feel. Racism, sexism, discrimination against chubby or fat students, etc. are other forms of discrimination similar to ethnocentrism. If students can identify with discrimination, they might be able to see the linkages with racism and ethnocentrism which has brought some of them to reject their Hispanic peers. The teacher can lead them to discuss how to change the classroom to eliminate these negative barbs.

If all of this fails, you could try the old standby of giving better treatment to one portion of the class (the "brown eyes") while discriminating against the rest of the class (the "blue eyes") during

part of a school day and asking the class to comment on how they felt afterwards, what they learned, and what all this means about how they treat one another.

WE DON'T HAVE ANY PROBLEM OF DISCRIMINATION IN MY CLASS. JUST THE REVERSE. SOME STUDENTS PROTECT THE HISPANIC STUDENTS. THEY WON'T LET THEM DO ANYTHING THEMSELVES. IS THAT HELPFUL?

This sounds like tokenism to me or at least a mild form of paternalism. Students may treat the non-native speaker like a pet, but we must face it. The "puppy dog" approach is equally a form of discrimination. It suggests that the Hispanic student does not have the ability to do something so more capable students must do it for him/her. This discourages healthy development in which one learns by making mistakes. It also sends a message to the Hispanic student that she/he is incapable of learning or doing for her/himself. Teachers of the handicapped in mainstream settings may have seen this take place in mainstream classes. Doing the tasks of another only serves to disable that student. As a teacher you should insist that limited-English speaking Hispanic students be allowed to make mistakes and to take on duties similar to the other students. However, this does not mean to withdraw support or assistance for tasks which are English language-centered. That will still be needed.

HOW DO EMOTIONS AND FEELINGS AFFECT SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING?

Emotions are part of all learning. Unfortunately, in our society we are trained to deny emotions--especially when learning is involved. Emotions are fundamental to learning in school settings. When students are taught to hide their feelings or deny them, they are kept from full development. The second language learner can advance faster if she/he receives emotional support. Teachers must provide an opportunity for students to share their feelings in an open and supportive atmosphere. Such sharing provides for healthy development.

Emotions are fundamental to second language learning. The older the second language learner, the more fundamental emotions are. Language learning is a very anxious process which places a great deal of stress on the learner who at that moment once again becomes a "child". Teachers who can create a supportive emotional atmosphere and who use methods which reduce this anxiety provide an optimal learning context. In second language education research, his is referred to as "lowering the affective filter" (Krashen, 1983). This is what you should strive to create. You do this by showing warmth and acceptance of differences, by including the Hispanic student in all activities, and by using a variety of methods to provide support to the inference of meaning.

6. THE PROFESSIONS: E.S.L. & BILINGUAL ED.

TO BE AN ESL TEACHER YOU MUST SPEAK THE LANGUAGE OF THE STUDENTS, RIGHT?

Wrong. To be an ESL teacher of Hispanic students, you are not required to speak Spanish. It may not be very helpful to use the first language of the students in the classroom because they become dependent upon it rather than learn the new language. However, it is useful for ESL teachers to know the first language of their students in order to understand the differences between Spanish and English. Occasionally, the teacher who knows the native language of her student can also communicate better with parents and the Hispanic community.

In fact, many ESL teachers do not speak Spanish. The methodologies used in English-as-a-second language classes permit the total use of English. ESL teachers rely on visual aids, gestures, pictures, and the classroom context to introduce the new language. Students learn to INFER meaning from the supportive context which teachers provide.

However, it may be helpful for the teacher to know Spanish in order to teach Hispanic studnts more effectively. This is true for ALL teachers, not just ESL. You can be more aware of the language background which students bring into the classroom as you work with them in English. You can better understand their thinking and use this information to teach. When the teacher does not know anything about Spanish, they may misuderstand the logic or thinking of the students.

CASE STUDY: I once observed an ESL teacher who was teaching 5-year old students the names for the rooms of a house and the objects in each room. As she pointed to a picture of the living room, she asked: "What's this?" No one knew the name in English. She hadn't taught it yet and they couldn't read the name written on the picture. One student then fell back on the only other strategy left--the native language. He said, "the sala"--Spanish equivalent. The teacher knew no Spanish so she replied in a surprised tone, "The cellar? No, it can't be the cellar. It's on the main floor. Do you have a cellar?" The student looked at her with confusion and she was a little surprised that students would refer to a living room as a "cellar." Their thinking was right on target. They had been using their native language as a support for concept development. The teacher missed this point because she didn't know enough Spanish to understand that these little children were using good sense in their answer. If she had known a little Spanish, she could have helped the student build on their knowledge by saying something like

"Yes. It's a "sala" in Spanish but in English we call it a "living room."

In addition, when students know that you know something about their language and culture--their roots--they feel more secure and open to learning. Teachers who speak Spanish can provide this feeling outside of class since they can more easily converse with Spanish-speaking parents and provide continuity in the life of the child.

ANYONE WHO IS A NATIVE SPEAKER OF ENGLISH CAN TEACH ESL, CAN'T THEY?

This is commonly believed but it is absolutely false. How many of your foreign language teachers who were native speakers with no training really taught you well? None. You probably suffered during your foreign language class in college because your teacher was a native speaker of the foreign language but had had little training in modern methods of language teaching or had little understanding of second language acquisition. If you were not very successful at becoming fluent in speaking a foreign language you studied in college, you probably blamed yourself rather than the teacher. The truth is that second language teaching is a science and a practice which are based on research. Only those who have had training in this research and practice are equipped to teach. Speaking a language does not automatically equip you to teach it!

A properly trained ESL and Bilingual Education teacher has had extensive training in linguistics (the mechanics of language), anthropology, and pedagogy. This means they have had coursework focusing on the theory of language (phonetics, morphology, syntax), second language acquisition, cross-cultural and comparative analysis, pedagogy of second language teaching, sociology of language, and bilingualism. In addition, bilingual education teachers and many ESL teachers also have had extended training in elementary education. Besides all of this intellectual training, ESL teachers should also be fluent in oral and written English and have had some experience learning a second language as well as living in a different culture. Bilingual teachers, of course, must be completely proficient in both English and Spanish.

WHAT DOES THE ESL TEACHER DO ANYWAY?

First let's get one thing straight. The ESL teacher does NOT teach in Spanish. S/he teaches in English. The major goal of the ESL teacher for students with very limited-English proficiency is the oral development of English. Most of the techniques and activities used in ESL classes are meant to further English oral development. Once students are at an intermediate stage or beyond, the ESL teacher then includes more reading and writing as part of her/his work. Until the student has a minimal grasp of the oral symbols of English, it does not make any sense to introduce printed English. However, some ESL teachers

begin introducing reading by reading very simple and highly illustrated books aloud to ESL students. This method provides an opportunity to help students with their oral comprehension and narrative development.

At the secondary level, the trend is now to use content as a base around which speaking, reading, writing, and study skills are developed. Some ESL teachers may be teaching what is called "content ESL" (Crandall, 1987; Mohan, 1986). They use a social studies book (such as, American History) which has been especially written for ESL students in high school. This means that it is simplified in language and cultural-historical references. Several such texts are now available in American history and math (Chamot, 1987; Tupin and Glasner, 1982). ESL content materials also help encourage the development of certain study skills essential for survival in other content classes. Thus the ESL teacher is using the content of U.S. History to develop language and study skills.

Another critical function of the ESL teacher is to serve as cultural broker or liaison for parents and students. They often help parents and students become familiar with school procedures and policies--all of which are very cultural. In addition, they act as a liaison for content or mainstream teachers who have ESL students. Good ESL teachers intervene for Hispanic students when cultural conflcts arise and they serve as advocates for Hispanic students.

A growing function of the ESL teacher is to offer on-going inservice training for mainstream teachers who have Hispanic ESL students. As the Hispanic ESL population is increases, more and more mainstream teachers have Hispanic students in their mainstream classes. Yet few mainstream teachers have had adequate training in how to help the Hispanic student (Penfield, 1987). They are often very uninformed about the effects of poverty on child development or the impact of cultural differences on one's world view. Sometimes their attitudes are parochial and even unintentionally since they expect less from Hispanic students and demand very little from them. Racism keeps minorities powerless and it is articulated through just such attitudes as these. The recently famous teacher in Los Angeles, Jaime Escalante, who was portrayed in the film "Stand and Deliver" has proved how much poor, urban Hispanic teenagers can and will do if they are challenged and supported by a caring but hard-working teacher. The success story of Jaime Escalante is something all of us could learn from (Mathews, 1988).

WHY DO THEY TAKE THE ESL STUDENT OUT OF MY CLASS? DON'T THE STUDENTS WHO NEED MY CLASS THE MOST MISS OUT?

Think about it for a minute. If you are teaching reading and the student doesn't understand the words and meanings on which the printed language is based, how can they be able to read? How can they comprehend anything of what is going on? What is easy for native speakers is very difficult for the limited-English proficient student.

If you are teaching science and you rely heavily on English, how can the beginning student capture any meaning of the complex concepts you want to develop. Almost anything you teach assumes the comprehension of English and familiarity with culture. Think about U.S. History for a minute. If one knows nothing about the United States--not even where the major cities and states are located--how can the details of U.S. History make any sense? Until a student has some level of comprehension and familiarity with American culture, s/he will feel lost and at a disadvantage among those who already have this knowledge. This is not to say it is bad for the Hispanic student to be in mainstream classes. But it is critical that they receive appropriate language development and skills in order to function in mainstream classes and this is what ESL teachers provide. Once the student can comprehend oral English and has a base in the concepts introduced, then it is appropriate to think about mainstraming her/him with the support of mainstream teaching strategies appropriate for her/his development.

HOW CAN THE ESL TEACHERS, BILINGUAL EDUCATION TEACHERS, AND MAINSTREAM TEACHERS WORK COLLABORATIVELY TO BEST DEVELOP THE HISPANIC STUDENT?

There is a great need for the two professionals to collaborate. Usually, neither group knows what the other is doing in their classes. ESL teachers should keep mainstream teachers informed about the ESL students they have. Emotional, personal, and cultural background is useful to mainstream teachers. Updates on each student are essential for mainstream (content) teachers.

ESL and Bilingual Education teachers should provide support for mainstream teachers. The ESL and Bilingual Education teachers should be available for one hour each week for private consultation with mainstream (content) teachers who seek advice. Just being in the teacher's lounge or another suitable location is helpful for those mainstream teachers who seek help.

ESL and Bilingual Education teachers can provide materials needed to teach content in English. More importantly the ESL teacher can brief the classroom teacher about each ESL child: where they are from, what educational background they have had, what their level of oral and written English is and what strategies in the classroom might work best for each culture, etc.

Annual in-service workshops for mainstream teachers are a must. ESL teachers must convince their administrators of the necessity for planning time for such workshops and funding them. Mainstream teacher input is vital for successful workshops. Consultants are often helpful in providing support for ESL teachers and linking mainstream and ESL teachers together in closer collaboration.

Mainstream teachers need to take on more responsibility for integrating the Hispanic student into the classroom and school. This requires changing one's teaching and developing more group and student-oriented materials from which all students will profit. But it

does require effort. Mainstream teachers can not place all of the burden of developing the limited-English proficient student onto the ESL teacher.

Optimally, mainstream and ESL teachers should coordinate their curriculum. ESL teachers can prepare their Hispanic students for their content classes if they know what is to be covered each week. New vocabulary and concepts can be introduced in the ESL class prior to the content class to give students support. Teachers find coordinating curriculum to be a time-consuming task but once it is initiated, it runs smoothly and saves time and effort in the content class.

Some school systems have found the notion of T-sets to be very helpful. Programs are scheduled so that the teachers who have the same Hispanic students share the same free period. At this time they can meet and discuss their students and monitor their progress. They can also mutually support students who are encountering difficulty.

HOW IS ESL TEACHERS JOB DIFFERENT FROM WHAT BILINGUAL TEACHERS DO?

Bilingual teachers are content teachers whereas ESL teachers are not. Bilingual teachers seek to do in Spanish exactly what the other elementary teachers do in English. They must help children develop concepts and literacy skills in their first language--Spanish. That means they teach math, science, social studies, reading, and writing in Spanish. Many bilingual teachers also begin to apply English to the same topics. They teach bilingually using both languages.

It is widely believed as proposed by a misinformed press that bilingual teachers teach ONLY in Spanish. Actually, this would be more helpful to the development of children. However, research on classrooms suggests that bilingual teachers often bend to the pressure of the society and in fact use a great deal of English in their classrooms. Some "bilingual" classrooms use Spanish only 30 per cent of the time. The majority of the classroom time takes place in English.

DOESN'T BILINGUAL EDUCATION LEAD TO SEGREGATION AND SEPARATION?

This question is always promoted by advocates of English Only--a small group in the United States which wants to eliminate any governmental services which use languages other than English. In regard to segregation, first we must acknowledge that without the presence of bilingual education, Hispanic students are commonly segregated de facto by tracking and testing measures which are biased in favor of English-speaking, Euro-centric cultural styles. If you find this difficult to believe, simply go to school districts with large numbers of Hispanics and obtain statistics on the percentage of Hispanic students in lower tracks or vocational programs as opposed to academic programs. You will easily see that a large percentage of Hispanics are counseled into non-academic programs. You will also find an over-representation of Hispanic students in Special Education programs and an under-representation in Academic Talented programs. Biased testing measures account for this problem which is well-recognized by Hispanic organizations. In short, Hispanics have actually been segregated by means of institutional policies for many years. Bilingual

education does NOT LEAD TO SEGREGATION. It may provide the only clear institutional alternatves to patterns of segregation which exist in many school systems.

Secondly, it is fair to point out that discrimination and segregation often take place in mainstream classrooms that are supposedly "integrated." When culture, the English language, and color of skin are measures of social status, segregation takes place even in an integrated setting. This segregation which occurs in mainstream classes may not be intentional on the part of the teacher but it does occur. For example, teachers who seek work which limited-English proficient students can do while they teach "the other students" are really seeking a means to segregate the class--teaching two separate groups in one class. Although this makes sense and seems like a reasonable thing to do, in fact it is following a type of segregation within classes. When bilingual education is available, it can provide the necessary support for Hispanic students until they can survive in mainstream classes. When it isn't available, the mainstream teacher is offered a challenge in how to integrate limited-English proficient students into her/his mainstream class. Penfield Associates has been developing some training tools for mainstream teachers. (See the list at the back of this manual.)

7. CULTURE

I GET CONFUSED BY THE LAST NAMES OF MY HISPANIC STUDENTS? WHICH IS REALLY THEIR LAST NAME?

Names are personal and cultural. They symbolize history and culture and should not be altered for the convenience of the teacher or educational system. Hispanics often have many names. There is an ordered procedure for these. They have one or two personal (first) names. Because many Hispanics are Roman Catholics they may typically have names of saints or biblical figures, like: Ana Maria, José Luis, Marco Antonio, and so forth. Their last names consist of a father's surname + a mother's maiden name (the family name of the mother's father). Here are two examples:

Personal name	+ father's surname	+ mother's maiden name	=
José Luis	Ruíz	Rosales	= Jose Luis Ruíz Rosales
Ana Maria	Gonzalez	Fernandez	= Ana Maria Gonzalez Fernandez

Marriage makes naming slightly more complicated. If JOSÉ LUIS RUIZ ROSALES marries ANA MARIA GONZALEZ FERNANDEZ, his name stays the same but hers may change to: ANA MARIA RUÍZ GONAZALEZ or ANA MARIA de RUÍZ or ANA MARIA GONZALEZ de RUÍZ which means "Ana Maria Gonzalez belonging to Ruíz." If they have a child (Juan), the child's name becomes: JUAN RUÍZ GONZALEZ. That is, the child keeps her/his father's family name + her/his mother's maiden name. Thus, Hispanic students may appear to have two family names. That is because they do have two family names: their father's and the mother's maiden name. All of this, of course, does cause some problems in alphabetizing because North Americans tend to rely on the last surname for filing records, whereas Hispanics use the next to last surname which is the father's or husband's surname. Sometimes the records of students are lost or miplaced because of this confusion. You should always get both surnames from your students so that you can track their records more easily.

To accommodate the North American naming system, some Hispanic women hyphenate their name to be MARIA GONZALEZ-FERNANDEZ (before marriage) and MARIA RUÍZ-GONZALEZ (after marriage) and they may change the child's name to JUAN RUÍZ-GONZALEZ.

WHY DO HISPANICS STUDENTS ALWAYS CLOSE IN ON ME? I FEEL LIKE THEY ARE BREATHING DOWN MY NECK.

. Body language is very different from one culture to another. The language of gestures, body movement, and space is highly cultural and subconscious. We often make assumptions about other people based on how they use time, space, and their bodies. Therefore, it's important to examine the differences between Euro-Americans and Hispanics.

Anthropologists have done much research on non-verbal language symbols (Hall, 1959). They have learned that each culture defines space and distance for interpersonal interaction in very different ways. The "bubble" which surrounds North Americans is much larger than that of Latin Americans because distance is treated different in each culture. Therefore Hispanics stand closer when talking, shake hands more often, and touch each other easily and frequently. Men may hug each other if they haven't seen each other in a long time. These behaviors can make non-Hispanics very uncomfortable. Also it is not uncommon to see women holding hands while walking down a busy street. Men easily touch men and women easily touch women in public with no sexual reference intended. The fact that these behaviors are often frowned upon in North American culture makes North Americans seem "cold" and "distant" to many Hispanics.

Many ESL teachers who have had Hispanic students have noticed that they stand very close, touch easily, and stop their conversation to include anyone who enters the group with whom they are spontaneously conversing. When Euro-Americans do not hug a lot or stand farther apart or continue their conversation even when another person joins the group, Hispanic students feel they are cold and unfriendly.

ARE THERE ANY OTHER CULTURAL CONFLICTS WHICH MIGHT ARISE?

Yes. There are many cultural conflicts. Some of the important ones are briefly summarized below:

(1) Time: Hispanics often say that time was meant for people rather than people for time. Time is often treated much more flexibly in Latin America. It is rarely calculated down to the minute. People and their needs take precedence over precise schedules or appointments. One takes time to finish a conversation or help a family member even if that means they will arrive at a scheduled appointment several minutes late.

(2) Space: Hispanics are accustomed to sharing rooms and space together. Some of this has resulted from a lack of resources. For example, in poorer Latin American countries it may be common for 200 people to ride together on one bus with only 60 seats. I have had this experience many times in Central American countries. Several children and even families sleep in the same room of a house. The notion of privacy as it is construed in the United States in which one has access to a great deal of space to one'self may be interpreted as loneliness in Latin American countries. Hispanics are used to being together in groups more often than being alone.

(3) Directions: It may seem to you that giving and following directions is the same all around the world. Not true. This is a very cultural activity. In many Latin American countries, street names are unimportant even if they exist. Intersections are named as points of reference and locations are defined by the number of blocks and/or steps from this point.

CASE STUDY: The address for a place I once lived in Managua, Nicaragua was:

Barrio Altagracia
from the intersection Racachaca
one block toward the lake
200 steps south to
across from the bus stop for the 119 bus
the apartment of Juan Santos

(Note: Racachaca was once a restaurant at this intersection. Although it no longer exists, the intersection still carries its name. A bus map shows that the apartment is located on a very busy street (Benjamin Zeledon) but no one in the neighborhood--not even those who have lived there for years--knows the name of the street.)

(4) Body Language: Traditionally, Hispanic children are forbidden from looking at adults when they are scolded or warned. Sometimes they look away from adults to show respect as well. In the United States, this can mean the exact opposite, i.e. either the child is being disrespectful or telling a lie.

(5) Family Allegiance: The family takes priority over everything--job, school, and friendship. If the family has a certain need which conficts with one's job, school, or friendship, the family gets priority without question. This is understood in Latin American cultures but not in Euro-American cultures. One is expected to remain loyal to their job even if it puts a strain on the family.

HOW DOES CULTURE INFLUENCE THE LEARNING STYLES OF HISPANICS?

In Euro-American culture emphasis is placed upon individual achievement. Even though children may be in one class and form one unit, teachers still expect that they will compete with their peers and work individually. Collective work is common in many Hispanic cultures but a very rare occurrence in U.S. schools where work is done separately and individually even if students are placed in a group. Students are encouraged not to talk to their neighbors. And when they take tests, working together is considered to be "cheating." Since Hispanic culture places a strong value on collectivity and the group, Hispanic students are in conflict and at a disadvantage in a classroom which practices the opposite--individuality. Teachers can address this by encouraging more truly cooperative activities for everyone in classrooms which have Hispanic students (Cortez, 1976; Ross 1979).

HOW ARE SCHOOLS IN LATIN AMERICA DIFFERENT FROM OURS?

Latin American schools are fairly traditional. Students sit in rows and most activities are teacher-directed. Teachers stand in the front of the room, lecture, write questions on the board, and students are called on to answer their questions. Student participation consists mostly of answering questions formulated by teachers and reciting memorized information. Therefore, classrooms which are student-oriented and provide many opportunities for social interaction between students may be unusual at first to Hispanic students. But since this classroom format is very helpful in language and social development, Hispanic students will quickly adapt to it because verbal interaction is a vibrant and common part of their family life.

Discipline is usually not a problem in Latin American schools. Students are accustomed to being silent and only speaking when called upon. Respect for parents, relatives, and teachers is the norm. Hispanic students may be quite shocked by the behavior of North American students. Their free and open manner with teachers seems disrespectful. In addition, Hispanic students do not openly disagree with their teachers to maintain their own opinion. North American students are often encouraged to do so to demonstrate independent thinking. Since Hispanic students may view this as being disrespectful, they may resist participating in such activities. As one Hispanic student put it, "Amerians are always arguing with their their teachers."

HOW CAN I INTEGRATE THE CULTURE THAT HISPANICS STUDENTS BRING INTO MY MAINSTREAM CLASSROOM?

One way in which you can integrate the culture of Hispanics into your curriculum is to group students in teams. Each team is responsible for one Latin American country. As you study a subject, e.g. math, science, history, related to the United States, each team can research how this subject is conducted in their "adopted" country. Make sure you have multicultural teams with Euro-, African-, Asian-, and Hispanic-Americans on each team.

Hispanic students can be important resources for internationalizing your classroom. There are now many resources available to help teachers internationalize their curriculum (Buggey and Tyler, 1977). In addition, you can team up with the ESL and/or Bilingual Education teacher to give an assembly in which Hispanic students introduce their culture through fashion, food, dance, and music. This is another way in which parents and the Hispanic community can become involved in the school. You will find that they will be happy to share in such an endeavor if you just invite them.

IT'S NICE TO LEARN ABOUT HISPANIC CULTURE, BUT DON'T THESE STUDENTS HAVE TO ADAPT TO OUR WAYS?

What does "adapt to our ways" mean? Is there only ONE way to be or are we insisting on one particular way: Euro-centric, middle-class? If that's so, then it's important to ask if we are thinking of schools as places of learning or places of brainwashing. Adapting is commonly used to mean the act of trading in one's own cultural identity for another one--that of the school. But what if the school is promoting an identity in conflict with the community? Should that be permitted?

Schools should respect the communities from which students come. It is very possible that some values which Hispanics uphold would be positive for Euro-Americans to learn. For example, Hispanics are not socialized to be as radically individualistic as Euro-Americans are. They are accustomed to working collectively and in groups to solve problems and get things accomplished. They can thus teach their Euro-American peers about team work and cooperative behavior. Hispanic children are taught to have a strong degree of respect for adults. This, too, is an important value to learn.

WHAT STEREOTYPES DO SCHOOLS HAVE OF HISPANICS?

There are many. One is to assume that all Hispanics are poor or that none of them speak English. We know that this is not true. There is much variation in the Hispanic community. However, schools are often guilty of assuming that Hispanics can not do well in math and science or other academic skills. Counselors often counsel Hispanics into vocational programs and away from academic or college-bound programs. As a result, it is often too late for Hispanic students to enter college. They don't have the proper credits. To assume that Hispanics can not handle science and math is stereotyping them. Such stereotypes limit their development.

It is also common to find Hispanics under-represented in academically talented programs and over-represented in special education programs. This situation needs to be contested. In some ways it is the result of a negative stereotype but it is also increased by tests given in English which assume an advanced level of English. Testing procedures which use tools inaccessible to students are biased and illegitimate. Teachers should oppose this procedure and seek bilingual examiners.

WHAT CULTURAL ASPECTS OF NORTH AMERICAN SCHOOLS CONFUSE HISPANIC STUDENTS AT FIRST?

Schools are cultural systems so the differences between schools in their country and schools here will cause confusion initially. The fact that education is decentralized in the United States contributes to some confusion since policies in one school district or state may be

very different in another. Grading is one example. Students need to have the grading system of their school explained to them as well as the true value of these grades (A, B, C and so on). In some countries, an A or B is rarely given and C is considered a very decent grade. Graduation requirements in high schools are clearly defined in U.S. schools but they may tremendously vary from state to state. Absentee policies in high schools in one school district may be strict and enforced whereas they may be loose and unenforced in a neighboring school district. No such policies at all may have existed in the Hispanic student's home country.

WHY ARE HISPANIC PARENTS INVOLVED IN THE SCHOOL?

Hispanic Parents are often accustomed to leaving matters related to school to the professionals in schools, i.e. teachers and principals. They may not easily get because such a role is not part of their cultural background. They have been accustomed to entrusting their children to teachers who they view as simply extending the role of parenting.

In addition, some parents may have never gone to school in their own country and therefore feel very inept to involve themselves in their child's school. Many do not speak English well and have been treated very coldly by school secretaries and other personnel when they have tried to handle very perfunctory or simple matters. They feel discouraged and rejected so they avoid any more contact with the school. Other parents work long hours at physical labor sometimes involving two or more jobs and thus find all it very difficult to attend parent teacher's organization meetings.

Frequent contact between parents and teachers is important because a major problem which Hispanic students face is the cultural divergence between home and school. Unfortunately, in urban schools there is usually minimal coordination and collaboration between school and home. Teachers can improve this situation by being more sensitive to Hispanic culture and the needs of poor parents--many of whom are female heads of households (Ascher, 1988).

Parents can play a critical role in their child's education. Current research has noted that parental involvement of any kind is more successful at raising the achievement of minority students than any pedagogical method or additional educational service. Parents do not have to come to school to help their children. They can do many little things at home which can support their child's development and learning both in school and at home. They can read books to their children or listen as children read books to them. They can provide a quiet and organized time and place for them to study each night. They can ask their children questions about their school experiences. And

they can listen to the problems which their child is encountering in her/his struggle in a new language and culture. Teachers at both the elementary school and high school levels can play an important role in involving Hispanic parents in their child's education. They can create lessons and give homework which requires the participation of parents and other family members (Simich-Dudgeon, 1987).

WHAT CAN I DO TO HELP STUDENTS ADJUST TO THE NEW CULTURE?

Attitudes are very important. Even if Hispanic students do not understand your words, they can still sense whether they are accepted or rejected, wanted or tolerated, etc. Your smiles and other body language will tell the story.

There are some little things you might do to help students adjust better:

(1) Students should construct a yearly calendar crossing off the days in which schools will be closed. At this time they can also learn the names of holidays and vacations celebrated during the school year. A copy of this calendar should be given to parents. It is tremendously helpful to them. Nothing is more embarrassing and frustrating than to send one's child to school when the school is closed.

(2) High schools should provide an orientation day for new Hispanic students before school opens. At this time new students would briefly simulate their schedules and learn where their classes are located, who their teachers are, how to spell and pronounce their names, how to use their locker, how to order and buy lunch, etc. They could also become familiar with policies of the school and other professionals available to help them, such as, counselors and nurses.

(3) Students should construct a detailed schedule of their day and share it with their parents. Often Hispanic students who are unfamiliar with large high school may get lost in their schedules.

CASE STUDY: In one high school I know of, a Hispanic student who was unfamiliar with the concept of homeroom staved with the homeroom teacher for period one instead of moving on to a different class. He continued this pattern for several days until the ESL teacher received a note that he had been skipping class. She knew he had been at school every day so she discussed the matter with him and uncovered the problem: he had been going to the wrong classes each day. The ESL teacher explained the scheduling system to him but by then he had missed out on the establishment of class policies and the introductory material in his classes.

(4) The school should have someone available who is bilingual and can serve as a liaison for English speaking teachers as well as parents of Hispanic students. A community person or part-time aide or parent

would make a great liaison. If money is not available, perhaps a bilingual high school student in the school might receive credit in community service or civics for serving as a liaison. This person could be available two mornings per week or one hour per day to help interpret messages from teachers to Hispanic parents and to answer questions of Hispanic parents. Many problems could be prevented with such a system.

HOW CAN CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IMPEDE LEARNING?

Cultural differences strongly influence the learning process because the learning process itself is cultural. If teachers are not from the cultures of the students, they will use interactional styles, values, language, and other symbols which do not relate to the students' experiences. This will impede learning. For example, Heath (1983) has documented the variation in types of language usage among three different cultural groups within the United States. She found substantial differences from sub-culture to another in language used to socialize children, even though all three sub-cultures were English-speaking.

When Hispanic children enter school, they encounter Euro-American teachers who are usually unaware of these differences in language use. These teachers often use a teaching style which is foreign to students, an interactional style which alienates them, and values which are in conflict with the home. Are we surprised if Hispanic students as a group do not learn as quickly as Euro-Amerian students who the same social background as the teachers? Teachers must start WHERE THE STUDENT IS when they get them, not where they want them to be.

It is impossible for you to know all of the cultural differences between Euro-American and Hispanic culture. But you can continue to learn these on-the-job by simply being a good observer and listener. Look first and think before you act. Be aware of your own assumptions and ask the question "why" to Hispanics teachers and students to uncover assumptions which may differ from your own. Hispanic students can help you learn their customs and values if you invite them to help you. Little by litle you will become aware of important cultural differences.

Sometimes teachers have formulated assumptions and attitudes about other ethnic groups which are negative and thus obstruct a positive relationship between teacher and student. In fact, these attitudes determine many decisions the teachers make when relating to the Hispanic student, such as, the level of work given out and other expectations which teachers have. Research tells us that the expectation a teacher has for a child is critical to the achievement of the child. Teaching is a very personal quality. Cultural understanding and acceptance are fundamental to healthy and harmonious classroom interaction.

One place in which teachers and parents are in conflict culturally is in child-rearing. Hispanic parents may have values which are very different from an Anglo teacher. Chapter 8 takes a look at Hispanic attitudes toward parenting.

8. CHILD REARING & PARENTING

WHY DO HISPANIC PARENTS OVERPROTECT THEIR CHILDREN?

There are vast differences in child-rearing practices from culture to culture. Child-rearing practices exhibit the strongest values of a culture and they are the least likely of any values for parents to change. Hispanic child-rearing and parenting practices can produce conflicts when the child enters a school setting which is predominantly Euro-American and middle-class. Many Euro-American as well as African-American teachers find Hispanic parents to overprotective because Hispanic culure does not promote the sacred U.S. values of independence and self-reliance. From the Hispanic point of view, U.S. culture is excessive in its individualism, independence, and competitiveness which are all encouraged in school settings as opposed to group cooperation and collectivity. Herein lies the conflict.

WHY ARE HISPANIC CHILDREN SO DEPENDENT AND IMMATURE?

This question reflects one major example of culture conflict. Some of the most pronounced areas of culture conflict in the classroom stem from a gross misinterpretation of the behavior of Hispanic students. The shy, quiet, non-participatory child is often labeled as backward and lacking in initiative and drive. Dependence on others for assistance is often interpreted as a form of immaturity from the perspective of Euro-American teachers and deference to others as a weakness or a subtle form of social bribery. Tardiness or lack of punctuality is taken to be a gross disregard for the value of time and inconsideration for others. These are some of the cultural conflicts which cause teachers to hold negative and damaging attitudes toward Hispanic children and their parents (Cortez,1976; Ross, 1980; FitzPatrick, 1971).

It is really important for teachers to understand the importance Hispanic children are trained to place on (1) loyalty to their family; (2) respect, dependence, and obedience to their parents; and (3) cooperative and collective sharing with friends and others as opposed to aggressive and competitive behavior (Saville-Troike, 1973).

HOW ARE TEACHERS VIEWED IN HISPANIC CULTURES?

Teachers are expected to act as surrogate parents no matter what the age of the student. The classroom is viewed as an extension of the home. This is in conflict with U.S. classrooms where children are expected to be self-reliant and independent, to participate actively in classroom discussions led by their teacher, to question, compete, and achieve ahead of their classmates, and to have a high regard for the use of their time (Ross, 1980). The motto sometimes heard in the United States "Time is Money" is practiced in the classroom. Students are warned not to waste time. They are rewarded for completing tasks quickly and accurately. In fact, time is often a determining factor in tests. Euro-American classroom teachers relate to students individually even though there are 20-30 present. They structure activities which requied independent seat work and the games used are usually competitive-based as the sports are.

WHY DON'T HISPANIC PARENTS CARE MORE ABOUT THEIR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION. HOW CAN WE GET THEM TO BE MORE INVOLVED IN SCHOOL?

Hispanic parents care a great deal about their children's education. It means a great deal to them. However, they may not participate in school organizations, such as the Parent Teachers Organization nor may they attend other functions regularly in school. This does not mean, however, that they don't care about education. There are pragmatic and cultural reasons for their lack of participation.

Some parents may not speak English well enough to participate in an all-English speaking school system. Even if they do speak English, they may be embarrassed by their accent. Some parents may have had very little education themselves. They are culturally accustomed to trusting the guidance of the teacher. They have learned to show respect by not interfering or questioning what takes place in the school context. In their tradition it is simly not the role of parents to do this.

HOW CAN SCHOOLS ENCOURAGE HISPANIC PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT?

A new way to approach this is through adult education. ESL or basic skills adult education classes can be designed for parents to teach much more than English. Such classes can offer a curriculum which teaches parents about the culture of the school, policies, and their rights as parents. They can receive training through such a course on how they might work together to obtain better services for their children. Some curriculae are now being developed in the United States to teach an ESL course which focuses on educating Hispanic parents about schools.

HOW CAN I COMMUNICATE WITH PARENTS IF THEY DON'T SPEAK ENGLISH?

You should not make a big deal about this. The important thing is that you TRY to communicate so that parents know that you do care about them. A smile has a lot of meaning in any language. Hispanic parents often bring a relative or their child to interpret for them so that they clearly understand. The same process can be followed over the phone. Language is not really the problem in teacher-parent communication. Usually, the problems lie in the misconceptions and misassumptions with which teachers and parents operate. Teachers should be sensitive to these and open to identifying them.

If you do have to rely on English only in your communication, try to use simple sentences with lots of visual support. For example, if you are talking about a grade, point to it on the paper or illustrate it with numbers. If you are talking about student behavior, give some visual examples to support your English words. Pretend you are playing charades or pictionary while you are speaking in English. Allow a longer wait time after your question or respone for the parent to speak. Second language speakers take more time to process what others have said and to formulate an answer. Do not fill up this empty waiting time with more language even though you will feel inclined to do this, but instead stick it out and wait for a response. If only receive a blank look, repeat or rephrase your questions/sentence in simpler words which you can accompany by gestures, pointing, or other visual means.

9. LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

HOW IS LANGUAGE LEARNING DIFFERENT FROM OTHER SUBJECTS, LIKE MATH, SCIENCE, OR SOCIAL STUDIES?

First of all, language isn't really a "subject" because it is fundamental to living in society. Language is a trait of the human family and fundamental to participating in certain groups. Therefore, language is much more personal and social than math, science or social studies. We judge people by how they speak and how they "don't speak" too. Speech is both private and public but it's the public aspect of speaking which possess the biggest difficulty for the learner. To learn a second language is risk-taking. Each time a second language learner opens their mouth they risk being laughed at or embarrassed by their choice of sounds or words or idioms. This means that language development--unlike science or math or social studies--must always be both a personal and public affair. It exposes the learner's ability, or lack of it to convey the simplest notions and therefore remains a constant threat to one's public self. Who likes to feel stupid or be laughed at? When you are learning a new language and YOU are in the minority, this is the price you must pay.

A single sound difference can be disastrous. (Case #1 & #2). A word with the same meaning but an inappropriate context can bring laughter. A false cognate can bring confusion (Case #3). And a literal interpretation of an idiom may be dangerous (Case #4). The cases described below illustrate some of these problems with language.

CASE #1: A Hispanic student once offered to help carry some my my materials to my room. I was busy talking with another student and he had to get to another appointment so he asked me, "May I please have the kiss?" I replied, "Yes, but let me give you the keys first." (He wanted to say "keys" but he had difficulty pronouncing this long dipthong so his pronunciation sounded more like "kiss".)

CASE #2: Many ESL teachers, like myself, are accustomed to correcting Hispanic students when they ask for a "shit" of paper. (They really mean "sheet", of course.) Some of them avoid this word and choose another only to run into a similar problem as they ask for "a piss of paper" when they really mean "piece."

CASE #3: I once took a group of students to Central America to study Spanish and to live in a Third World country with a family. One male student was just beginning to learn Spanish. He wanted to go to church to capture the experience so the family matched him up with

their cook who lived with them. This student was a very sensitive young man and he often worried that his presence would inconvenience or embarrass others. To make sure this was not the case, he went to this woman who was to take him to church with her and tried to ask her if she would be embarrassed by his presence. Unfortunately, he looked up the false cognate "embarasar" which means "to get pregnant" in his Spanish construction. The English equivalent of what he asked her was, "I hope I won't get you pregnant by going to church with you." Wow! What more needs to be said?

CASE #4: I used to warn my ESL students that they should be careful of two-word verbs in English because their meaning was more than the sum of the two parts. I would tell them about the fictitious ESL student was riding on a bus one day when the bus driver yelled back to some of the kids on the bus who had their arms outside the window, "Look out!" as another bus passed by. Unfortunately, the ESL student took the idiom literally and stuck his head outside the bus window so that he could "look" "out." Now he doesn't worry about idiomatic expressions anymore.

No wonder Hispanic students are reluctant to open their mouths at all, except to speak Spanish. Some can't bear the risk of laughter or embarrassment. It's emotionally too painful. Some have had too much emotional pain already so they protect themselves by withdrawing. Your challenge as a professional is to help them overcome this psychological state known as "anxiety" because it impedes their language, cognitive, and social development.

BUT HOW CAN I HELP THEM OVERCOME ANXIETY? I'M NOT A THERAPIST. I'M A TEACHER. IF THEY DON'T WANT TO LEARN, IT'S NOT MY PROBLEM.

But they DO want to learn. And it is your problem because that's your job--to provide a context which stimulates and develops learning. Force won't do it. Threats either, because language is too personal and social. You have to find ways to make the student feel free to make mistakes, take risks and experiment with language. If you expect perfection or concentrate on it, the students may give up, clam up, or fail to speak up.

A second thing you could do would be to open up a discussion about the pain of speaking this second language. For example, you could say "I was wondering what it feels like to be learning a second language as a kid/adolescent/adult and what your thoughts are about this?" You could do this in Spanish or in English but the important thing is that you give students a chance to talk about the emotional part of this process and the difficulties they face. Your role should not be to answer these questions or try to provide solutions or soothe over this experience but rather to listen and give them time to talk it out. This relieves tension and brings their awareness that they are all sharing similar experiences. By doing all this they can see that no one is

going it alone or is stupid or crazy for their typical human experience of fearing to use English or struggling with the process.

A methodology has now been developed which helps poor and minority children to talk about their feelings and work actively and collectively to re-organize their environment so that they can change the social conditions which keep them from developing. The Barbara Taylor School model of education helps students identify how the "isms" in society--racism, sexism, ethnocentricism, and homophobia--keep them underdeveloped. It goes one step further in developing children as activists and changers of these conditions. This exciting new model of education which is being developed in an independent community school and day care in Harlem holds much hope for language minority students in poor urban districts (Strickland and Holzman, 1989).

DOESN'T THE CONTINUED USE OF SPANISH IN THE HOME SLOW DOWN THE ACQUISITION OF ENGLISH?

No. Usually the reverse. The more solid the cultural identity and language foundation in the first language, the better for learning the second language. This is especially true for literacy. If children have a solid background in literature, reading, writing, math, and science in their first language, then they simply transfer these concepts over into the second language as they learn it. What all this means is that you SHOULD NOT ADVISE PARENTS to stop using their native language with their children. This will cause the children to have identity problems (See the autobiography of Richard Rodriguez for a personal example. Rodriguez, 1981). The parents will have less ability to relate to their child and parental respect will be lessened. Besides the child will be harmed.

What you CAN do is to encourage parents to develop Spanish. They can tell their children stories, read to them, and listen carefully as their children read aloud to them. They should involve their children in many different uses of Spanish which will increase their ability to: describe, summarize, compare, explain, identify causes, generalize, draw conclusions, and interpret everyday events. This approach to language helps Hispanic students use of language develop concepts and language together. Once this base is there, it can be easily transferred into English.

I'VE NOTICED THAT AT FIRST CHILDREN REFUSE TO SPEAK ENGLISH NO MATTER HOW MUCH I INSIST. WHAT SHOULD I DO?

You should not force them to speak but not ignore them either. Kids can actively learn without speaking. In fact, it's normal that they NOT SPEAK much at all for the first few weeks. This is called the SILENT PERIOD and it's necessary for smooth second language development (Krashen, 1983). The student may not speak but that does not mean she/he will not be learning. In fact, during this period of language development the student is building a high degree of comprehension.

If a student is in their "silent period", it doesn't mean that you should stick the room in the back of the room and wait it out. Instead, you should engage them in meaningful activities with other students in unstressful, accepting, and warm settings. You can check their progress

by observing their actions or by asking them to do certain things and checking to see if they can do them. They will begin to speak when they feel safe and are ready. Respect their development.

Context is the cue which most helps children learn a second language. They have to figure out what the oral symbols (words and sentences) of English mean so they need something to help them. Use of context is the most helpful learning strategy they have. You can provide context through pictures, objects, actions, facial expressions, gestures, body stance, drawing, painting, etc. If these cues accompany your spoken words, the student will begin to make the connections between the sounds of English and their meaning.

HOW ELSE CAN TEACHERS PROVIDE CONTEXT?

Just think about how parents do this their very young children. They point to objects or touch them, they show them pictures; they draw; they use other words or different way of saying the same thing; they use diagrams or charts; they use stories or fables; they use songs; etc. If you put language into MEANINGFUL interaction--communication with a purpose--you can facilitate the natural development of English for the Hispanic student.

BUT HOW CAN ALL THIS LEAD TO ACADEMIC SUCCESS?

The real goal should be conceptual development. Academic achievement is product-oriented. It misses the point that human beings are constantly in the process of conceptual development. As such, language development is completely linked to conceptual development.

IF SO, THEN HOW CAN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT ASSIST CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT?

Ah, yes. This is a very important question. We want the Hispanic student to not only learn the language symbols and their meaning but concepts as well. For example, as the student learns the terms: "more than" or "less than" she/he should also learn or review the mathematical concept that: "10 is more than 5" and "5 is less than 10."

As we mentioned above, CONTEXT can serve to develop both language and concepts. For true conceptual development, the focus must be on meaning and trial and error learning, not perfection or accuracy. For beginners, the teacher's challenge is to provide settings or activities that provide high contextual support. For example, a scientific experiment or a recipe performed along with language can provide the contextual support for meaning.

DOESN'T BILINGUALISM RETARD COGNITIVE GROWTH?

There is lots of controversy about the effects of bilingualism on cognition and lots of research as well. Some of this research was done to try to prove a false assumption: bilingualism is harmful to children. But none of the research was able to conclude this. We can't

be sure that bilingualism increases cognitive growth but we ARE sure that bilingualism does not slow it down. One thing that does seem to be clear among bilingual students is that they far surpass monolingual students in COGNITIVE FLEXIBILITY AND CREATIVITY. In some cases where bilingual education programs have been successful, bilingual students are also more tolerant and open to other cultures.

10. SPANISH & ENGLISH: DIFFERENCES

HOW DOES SPANISH AFFECT THE LEARNING OF ENGLISH?

The native language does sometimes influence the learning of a second language, but not always. Now we know that the theory of behaviorism proposed by B.F. Skinner in the 1950's does not apply to language learning. Skinner had suggested that second language learners were always haunted by the habits of the native language and that learning a second language amounted to first unlearning the native language because it "interfered" with learning new habits. Mistakes or errors made in the second language were always assumed to be caused by "interference" from the first language. But research done on the learning of a second language in a natural, communicative context has revealed that most of the time learners of English are trying to grapple with the irregularities of English rather than to "escape" from the habits of their native language (Dulay and Burt, 1974). All of this does have some implications for teaching Hispanic students. THE MORE THEY ARE ENGAGED IN A COMMUNICATIVE USE OF ENGLISH IN ACTIVITES WHICH ARE RELEVANT AND MEANINGFUL TO THEIR LIVES, THE QUICKER THEY WILL LEARN ENGLISH. Content and mainstream teachers play a large role in the Hispanic student's development of English.

All of this is not to say that language interference never occurs. When learners are faced with a language task which far exceeds their competencies at that time or they are placed in a non-communicative language context (such as a grammar class), they usually resort to the only coping strategy they have--their first language. Then we see the result of the influence of Spanish on English or what in linguistics is called "language interference." This is why we find many examples of interference among adults in those ESL classroom settings which are grammar-oriented.

The main point to remember is that interference errors are an indication of learning and thinking. When Hispanic students make an error in their use of oral or written English, they are being systematic as they try to learn the new rules and organizational patterns of English. There is nothing abnormal about this. In fact, it indicates actual learning. The teacher's role should be to determine the CAUSES of the errors so that she/he might understand the reasons for the errors. Then she/he introduce the Hispanic student to more language input by using similar structures in a variety of different contexts.

Interference in pronunciation arises when the language systems of Spanish and English conflict. In the case of pronunciation, research tells us that because the brain loses its plasticity at the time of puberty, pronunciation is hard to change after puberty. It may be

highly unlikely that students who learn English after they have passed through adolescence will be able to lose their Spanish "accent." In such cases, pronunciation does not usually disrupt their comprehension of English or their ability to use English socially. Interference can also be found in vocabulary usage as a result of false cognates, in the writing system when homographs (words spelled alike but with different meanings) and homophones (words pronounced alike but spelled differently and often having different grammatical functions) are involved, and in grammatical constructions. Each of these will described in this chapter.

HOW CAN WE TELL THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN A SPEECH DEFECT AND LANGUAGE INTEREFERENCE?

This is a very important question. There are, of course, speech disabilities which cross language lines. Stuttering is a good example. But to answer this question we must be very, very careful because language differences imply cultural and social differences. What may look absolutely defective in the speech of a Hispanic student learning English may be completely predictable on the basis of Spanish. Let's look at an example--the "th" sounds in English. Spanish-speakers will pronounce them as either "t" or "d" as in:

[wit] for "with" or [dis] for "this"

These pronunciations are completely systematic and predictable because Spanish does not have the first "th" sound and even though it does have the second one (in "this"), it never occurs at the beginng of a word so it is still difficult for the Hispanic student to hear and pronounce. Both of these sounds are often identified as difficulty for native speakers of English who have speech problems, but for the Hispanic student learning English, they do NOT indicate a defect but rather systematic learning.

The question about speech abnormalities should not arise for a Hispanic student until she/he has had at least two or more years of exposure to English among English native-speaking peers. Research indicates that it takes from one to five years to bring the learner to oral proficiency. Age and access are critical factors. Learners who begin the process after puberty and those who do not have access to native speakers of English may take longer to go through the stages of English language development.

There are some cues which speech teachers and others can use to weed out whether a speech difference may be an abnormality which needs to have special focus or whether it is simply part of normal second language development. First, keep in mind that we are talking about learners who have not passed through puberty:

(1) Find out if the learner uses the same sounds or has these speech habits in the native language. For example, if the student stutters in the native language they will probably also stutter in the second language. You can collect a sample of natural speech and have a native speaker listen to it for the speech habits which concern you.

(2) Find out if other ESL learners of the same or different language backgrounds have the same language behavior. To do this requires some observation and data collection on your part. Again you can tape-record some natural samples.

(3) Investigate whether this way of speaking has been present in this learner for more than one or two years.

Be realistic. Remember that research shows that after puberty few changes in pronunciation patterns are likely. The majority of adult second language learners will always speak English with a Spanish "accent."

WHAT ENGLISH SOUNDS WILL BE DIFFICULT FOR SPANISH-SPEAKERS?

Several English consonant sounds do not exist in Spanish and many of the English vowel sounds are absent in Spanish. Spanish vowel sounds tend to be more tense and lack dipthongs, that is, two sounds together which function as one (ex. "boy" or "hay"). Sounds which will be difficult for Hispanic students because they do not exist in Spanish are listed below (Allen, 1965):

Phonetic symbol			
[θ]	as in	"thin"	(Non existent in Spanish. Hard for Hispanics to distinguish.)
[ð]	as in	"this"	(Not found at the beginning or end of words in Spanish.)
[r]	as in	"red"	(The English "r" is a retroflex or backward curve of the tongue which is never found in Spanish.)
[z]	as in	"lazy"	(The "z" spelling exists in Spanish, but it is always pronounced as [s]).
[v]	as in	"victor"	(The "v" spelling exists in Spanish, but it is always pronounced as [b] or a soft version of [b].)

[ž] as in "pleasure" or "Asia" (A variant of this sound exists in a few Latin American dialects of Spanish. It is a common sound in Portuguese.)

[h] as in "had" (The letter "h" exists in Spanish but it is never pronounced.)

[y] as in "yellow" (Usually pronounced as a diphthong in Spanish. Spanish speakers may pronounce this sound like "j")

[i] as in "kiss" (Only the tense version of [iy] as in "keys") is found in Spanish.)

[e] as in "met" (Only the tense version [ey] as in "mate") is found in Spanish.)

[u] as in "look" (Only the tense version [uw] as in "Luke") is found in Spanish.)

[æ] as in "bat"

[ə] as in "but" (This sound occurs more frequently in English than any other sound because it is the sound of weakly stressed syllables. There is no equivalent in Spanish.)

[ɔ] as in "bought" (The three vowels [æ], [ə], and [ɔ] are very difficult for the Hispanic student to differentiate.)

When a sound is not found in the student's first language, she/he will choose the nearest equivalent from their first language--Spanish. Therefore, it is not unusual to hear "think" pronounced as [ting] or "zoo" pronounced as [suw] or "very" pronounced as [bery] or "last" pronounced as [les] or "van" pronounced as [baen] or "have" pronounced as [haeb].

Pronunciation is also affected by the position of the word in which the sound or sounds occur. The English [p], [t], and [k] sounds also exist in Spanish but they are pronounced differently at the beginning and end of the word. In Spanish there is no additional puff of air (aspiration) so when Hispanics bring this pattern of pronunciation into English, English speakers often hear [b], [d], and [g] instead. For example, "Peter" may sound like "beater."

Consonant clusters exist in Spanish but only in the middle of words. They are not found at the beginning or end of words as they are commonly found in Enlish. If the cluster exists at the beginning of the word, Spanish-speakers will precede it with a vowel to be consistent with the Spanish pattern. For example, "school" will be pronounced [eskuwl'] or "strike" as [estraik'] or "speak" as [espiyk']. When consonant clusters are at the end of the word, Spanish-speakers may simply pronounce only one of the two or three consonants as the following examples illustrate:

ENGLISH	PRONOUNCED AS
"most"	..... [mows]
"ask"	..... [aes]
"card"	..... [kar]
"ward"	..... [war]
"clasp"	..... [eklaes']

The Hispanic student's difficulty in pronouncing final consonant clusters also produces grammatical errors since noun plurals, first person singular present tense verbs, simple past regular verbs, and negative contractions all require consonant clusters at the end of the word. From her/his pronunciation, it may seem that the Hispanic student does not know grammatical rules when in fact pronunciation patterns are at fault. For example, the plural noun "cats" may erroneously be pronounced as a singular noun, [kaet], because of the simplificaion of the consonant cluster at the end. The third person singular verb in the sentence: "He sings in the play." may be reduced to [sing] because of consonant cluster simplification. The same is true for the "ed" ending on regular past tense verbs as in "He washed the dishes" or past participles as in "He had cleaned the room" which might be pronounced as [wash] rather than [washt] and [kliyn] rather than [klivnd]. Negatives are especially problematic because they semantically are so important. The negative contraction "can't" may be pronounced as [kaen].

WHAT ENGLISH PRONUNCIATIONS WILL BE DIFFICULT FOR SPANISH SPEAKERS TO DISTINGUISH?

There are pairs of number words which are difficult for Spanish speakers to distinguish:

thirty	vs.	thirteen
forty	vs.	fourteen
fifty	vs.	fifteen
etc.		

One way in which they can be taught to distinguish these is the stress. Ask a native speaker of English to pronounce each pair and listen to the difference in stress and length between the two. One syllable gets more emphasis and is longer in time than another. Students can be taught to recognize the stress and length differences. For example:

THIR-ty	vs.	thir-TEEN
FOR-ty	vs.	four-TEEN
FIF-ty	vs.	fif-TEEN

HOW WILL PRONUNCIATION DIFFERENCES AFFECT LEARNING TO READ ENGLISH?

If teachers are unfamiliar with rules of interference between Spanish and English, they may conclude that the Hispanic student can not read for comprehension. Often teachers use the technique of reading aloud to check for student ability in reading. But this is not a good method to use among Hispanic students. If students aren't able to read English aloud, it can't be assumed that they do not understand what they are reading. Why? English and Spanish share many written symbols but pronounce them differently. The same graphic symbol may not be pronounced the same in the two languages. For example, suppose a Spanish speaking student were reading the following the word "fit" aloud but using a Spanish equivalent. They would say [fiyt] ("feet") even though they may know the meaning to be [fit] ("fit"). These mistakes will be most common if Hispanic students have been taught English through very traditional methods which focus on printed language before oral comprehension has been acquired.

There are several orthographic differences between Spanish and English which can cause lots of confusion to the learner. They are described below:

Orthographic characters

h ... silent as in "hola" = [o-la]
ge ... pronounced as [hey] as in "gente" = [hen-tey]
gi ... pronounced as [hiy] as in "gira" = [hi-ra]
j ... pronounced as a gutteral sound as in "jamas" = [ha-mas]
ce ... pronounced as [sey] as in "cero" = [sey-ro]
ci ... pronounced as [siy] as in "cita" = [siy-ta]
z ... pronounced as [s] as in "raza" = [ra-sa]
v ... pronounced as [b] as in "vida" = [biy-da]
s ... pronounced as [h] when it precedes "s" (in some dialects) as in "esto" = [eh=tow]
y ... pronounced as [j] in some dialects as in "yo" = [jow]
ll ... pronounced as [y] as in "tortilla" = [tor-tiy-ya]

a ... always pronounced [ah] as in "taco" = [tah-kow]
e ... always pronounced [eh] as in "Elsa" = [ehl-sah]
i ... always pronounced [iy] as in "nino" = [niy-nyow]
o ... always pronounced [ow] as in "taco"

To even confuse matters more, the pronunciation of the names of certain important letters in the English alphabet indicate very different letters in Spanish. For example, the pronunciation of the English letter "a" refers to the letter "e" in Spanish. The English letter "e", however, refers to the Spanish letter "i". When Hispanic students begin to spell their name in English, they encounter great difficulty with these three important letters.

BUT HOW WILL PRONUNCIATION DIFFERENCES AFFECT THE WRITING OF HISPANIC STUDENTS?

The pronunciation differences between Spanish and English may also interfere with the spelling system of English. Older students who have learned the oral base of English before learning to spell, may resort to a phonetic spelling of their pronunciation. This phonetic spelling is similar to the invented spelling of very young English-speaking children; however, you may not recognize it as as such because the Hispanic student has a different oral base than the native speaking child. You will probably find this problem of phonetic spelling very common among bilingual Hispanic students who have moved back and forth from an English-speaking environment to a Spanish-speaking one. At one time they may have acquired English from peers but they may not have had enough formal instruction in writing to be familiar with English spelling. When teenagers and adults write essays but lack knowledge of the written orthographic system, their essays appear to be full of grammatical errors. In fact, these are really spelling errors. They usually occur among words which are homophonic (pronounced alike) in the English of the Hispanic student.

Table 5 lists some typical hompohones you may encounter in your student's essays (Penfield, 1983; Penfield and Ornstein-Galicia, 1985). These homophones may not seem that problematic to you, but keep in mind they appear in the middle of a fluent essay. As such, they completely disrupte the intended meaning of the writer. Do any look familiar to you? Would you take them to be grammatical mistakes or spelling problems? They are indeed spelling problems, but they exist because they are pronounced the same to the learner. Just as native speakers of English mix up "they're", "their", and "there", Hispanic students confuse these sets of homophones.

HOW CAN I HELP STUDENTS USE THE CORRECT FORM IN THEIR ESSAYS?

You can help them recognized the different grammatical functions which each element of the pair have or the sentence context which restricts their usage. For example, "this" only refers to singular items and "these" to plural items. A pattern of agreement is necessary to be correct.

TABLE 5

Homophones Causing Spelling Problems

Homophone	Grammatical Difference
BEEN & BEING: [ben]	past participle vs. progressive
	"I've BEING married."
	"Living together without BEEN married daily."
	"We are all human BEENS."
THIS & THESE: [divs]	singular vs. plural
	"THESE way, you don't have to worry."
	"THIS are my reasons for abortion."
THINK & THING: [tiŋ]	verb vs. noun
	"I THING I would be unhappy."
	"Most of the youth is learning THINKS early."
WHEN & WENT: [wen]	conjunction vs. verb
	"First we WHEN to Juarez and then back home."
	"I come to visit her WENT I can."
IN & ON & AND: [ən]	prepositions vs. conjunction
	"I fell AND the water."
	"The best vacation I had ON my life."
WHERE & WERE: [wer]	conjunction vs. verb
	"They seem incapable to accomplish a job WERE strength & intelligents are combine."
COMING & COME IN: [k -mɪ]	progressive verb vs. two-word verb
	"The wolf said to Little Red Hood, COMING."
"A" & "I": [ ]	article vs. first person
	"I had I lot of friends."
LOVED & LOVE IT: [ləv-ɪd]	past tense vs. verb + pronoun
	"That's my home and I LOVED."
HAVE & HAD: [haeb]	present tense or infinitive vs. past tense or past participle
	"The women HAD always being in the house to take care of children."

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ONCE & ONES: [wahns] adverb vs. plural noun

"These are the people, the ONCE I hate."
"It's nice but ONES you get married, finished."

ADVICE & ADVISE: [aed-vais] noun vs. verb

"Once a month he ADVICED them."
"I need some ADVISE."

PROOF & PROVE: [pruf] noun vs. verb

"American doctors are trying to PROOF the theory."

BELIEF & BELIEVE: [biy-liyf] noun vs. verb

"We still BELIEF we have to get married."

TAUGHT & THOUGHT: [taht] verb vs. noun

"I TAUGHT a lot before I got married."
"How many years have you THOUGHT?"

FILLING & FEELING: [fi-liŋ] noun or verb vs. verb or noun

"By instinct man stops eating food
when FILLING ill."

SELL & SALE: [sel] verb vs. noun

"This is why governments permit the
SELL of pornography."

LOST & LOSS: [lahs] adjective vs. noun

"Workers have LOSS their jobs."

WILL & WOULD: [wul] future vs. modal

"What WILL you like?"
"I WILL like to be a great artist."

WANT & WON'T: [wahn] verb vs. negative

"She didn't WON'T to beome an artist."

WHAT OTHER DIFFERENCES ARE THERE BETWEEN ENGLISH AND SPANISH THAT WILL GIVE THE STUDENT PROBLEMS?

False cognates can cause many problems to the learner. English and Spanish share many true cognates which can help the learner guess meaning. For example, "gent" in English and "gente" (= "people") in Spanish are true cognates. But sometimes words that appear to be cognates are false and they deceive the learner. False cognates are words that look alike but do NOT have similar meanings. For example, the Spanish word "librería" refers to a "bookstore" whereas the Spanish equivalent of "library" would be "biblioteca." Appendix A provides a list of false cognates which might occur in student essays. Table 6 below includes a brief sample of some of these.

TABLE 6

Some False Cognates

ENGLISH	SPANISH		meaning
embarrassed	embarasada	=	"pregnant"
	apenado	=	"embarrassed"
parent	pariente	=	"relative"
	padres	=	"parents"
sympathetic	simpático	=	"kind or pleasant"
	compasivo	=	"sympathetic"

WHICH GRAMMATICAL POINTS GIVE HISPANIC STUDENTS PROBLEMS IN LEARNING ENGLISH?

Generally speaking, English conveys much of its meaning through word order while Spanish uses inflexions or endings. Because of this, word order is stricter and more rigid in English. English closely adheres to a subject-verb-object order in statements. Questions are formed by changing this order. English requires an overtly stated subject whereas Spanish rarely states its subject. Spanish requires the marking of nouns and adjectives according to gender and number.

The important thing to remember as a teacher is that every error that a learner of English makes reflects the attempt of the learner to make sense out of a new system--in this case English. Many times the Hispanic student will be automatically implanting the system of Spanish into her/his English sentences. If you do not know how the Spanish language works, you may assume that she/he is being unsystematic and illogical. But if you do, you will be able to help her/him out better.

That is why it is important for you to understand the types of errors which might be made and the reasons for these. Several grammatical differences are summarized below. I have relied on my own data and analysis as well as the work of other linguists (Allen, 1965). Appendix B also has an itemized listing of grammatical points and common errors of Hispanic students who are limited-English proficient.

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11. GRAMMATICAL ERRORS

Those Hispanics who are in the process of learning English will certainly make errors. As we mentioned previously, these errors are a sign of LEARNING and can serve as guideposts for informing the teacher of the student's language development process. It would thus be helpful if educators understood some of the predictable and systematic errors one finds among Spanish speakers learning English. The teacher can use her/his knowledge of systematic errors in her/his teaching to restructure a lesson or alter her/his pattern of communication. Child study teams and speech teachers can be more informed about Hispanic students and thus be better able to differentiate those who really need special services from those are completely normal and systematic in their second language development. Writing teachers can also be more helpful to Hispanic students if they understand the logic behind their errors.

What follows below is a discussion of some, but not all, of the errors Spanish speakers make in learning English. All of the examples give are taken directly from student essays and speech. NOTE: All errors will be marked by * .

* * *

NOUNS

In their initial stages of learning English, Spanish-speakers sometimes do not place the final "s" (pronounced, [s], [z], or [iz] as in "cats", "dogs", "witches" respectively) on plural nouns. Even though they know the rule for doing this in English, they find it difficult to pronounce a consonant cluster at the end of the word or to end a word with a sound which doesn't exist in Spanish, i.e. [z] as in (1).

1. * "I saw four dog in the park."

Irregular plural nouns are problematic for all ESL students because they provide no clue as to their plurality. The student must simply memorize them one by one. The Spanish language has no irregular

plural nouns so Hispanic students have to learn some exceptions in English. Three irregular plurals which are very common in English ("men", "women", and "people") will be wrongly pluralized in the language of the new learner of English in such contexts as illustrated by (2)-(4).

2. * "The mans are playing baseball."

3. * "How many woman are in class?"

4. * "Three peoples were there."

Hispanic students must learn to distinguish two types of nouns: (a) those which can be counted (e.g. "pencil", "book") and (b) those which normally are not counted (e.g. "honesty", "bread", "chalk"). The former category is referred to as "countable nouns" and the other category as "non-countable." There are several implications of these two categories which give ESL students problems. First, nouns are not always inherently countable or non-countable. Some nouns can be used in either category with different meanings. Look at "pineapple" for example (5 & 6) and (7 & 8):

5. "Pineapple is my favorite food." (non-countable)

6. "I'd like two pineapples please." (countable)

7. "Love is a delightful feeling." (non-countable)

8. "My work and my child are my two loves." (countable)

Thus non-English speaking students may be confused about when they can pluralize a noun or not because some nouns fit into both grammatical categories and convey very different meanings in each category.

When nouns are treated as non-countable, the only way in which they can be counted is through what I would call an "itemizer." An itemizer is another countable noun which semantically describes the shape, size, weight, form, etc. of the non-countable noun. There are many in English. For example (9-12):

9. "a bag of....."

10. "a box of....."

11. "a pound of..."

12. "a stack of..."

Only by pluralizing the itemizer can a non-countable noun be pluralized (13):

13. "rice" ..... "two bags of rice"

This means that Hispanic students must learn the names of the appropriate itemizers before they can pluralize certain nouns. They sometimes run into difficulty here because itemizers are cultural (14 & 15):

14. * "a packet of rice" instead of "a bag of rice"

15. * "a box of milk" instead of "a carton of milk"

Secondly, since non-countable nouns are not counted, then they never occur with "a" and only with "the" when the speaker is being more specific as in (16).

16. "The honesty of Mr. Wizard was impressive.

The article "the" is required in Spanish before non-countable nouns so Spanish-speakers will use it before abstract and collective nouns in English without trying to make them more specific, as in (17):

17. * "The honesty is a good quality."

The article "the" is also required in Spanish in contexts in which it is forbidden in English; namely, before names of streets and squares (18), before titles and surnames (19), and before parts of the body and personal articles of clothing that belong to the subject (20) whereas in English the article "the" is not permitted in such contexts.

18. * They live on the Jefferson Street.

19. * The Mr. Black is in France.

20. * She washed the hands.

The article "a" is omitted in Spanish before an unmodified predicate noun expressing nationality, occupation, profession, or political party so that the learner will tend to omit it in English where it is required (21-24):

21. * "She is Spaniard." for "She is a Spaniard."

22. * "He is teacher." for "He is a teacher."

23. * "You are artist." for "You are an artist."

24. * "I am Democrat." for "I am a Democrat."

* * *

PRONOUNS

The most common pronoun problem found among Hispanic students who are learning English is the failure to state the subject. Subject pronouns are usually used in Spanish only when a case is ambiguous or an emphasis is intended. Limited-English proficient students will commonly form sentences like (25) or (26):

25. * "Was raining" for "It was raining."

26. * "Is happy?" for "Is he happy?"

As mentioned previously, Hispanics may fail to use possessive adjectives when they are required in English because the Spanish language opts for the article "the" rather than the possessive adjectives (e.g. "her", "his" etc.) when their seems to be no ambiguity about whose item of clothing or body is being referred to. Thus such errors as (27) and (28) may be used when Hispanic students are just beginning to learn English.

27. * "He's combing the hair." for "...his hair."

28. * "I'm tying the shoes." for "...my shoes."

Spanish-speaking students will occasionally use an incorrect pronoun reference in English because the same pronoun forms for subjects of sentences and objects of prepositions are the same.

29. * "He's thinking for she's." for "He's thinking for her."

Spanish has only one word ("su") for five different possessive adjective forms in English ("his", "her", "its", "your" and "their") so Spanish-speakers will often choose the incorrect form when using English as in examples (30-32):

30. * "It's her book." for "It's his book."

31. * " " " for "It's your book."

32. * " " " for "It's their book."

A point of great confusion to Hispanic students learning English are the differences between the possessive adjectives ("my", "your", "her", "his", "its" "their", and "our") and the possessive pronouns ("mine", "yours", "hers", "his", "its", "theirs", and "ours"). Notice first that some of the possessive pronouns seem to be formed by adding "s" on to a possessive adjective, e.g. "yours". But others don't, e.g. "mine", "his", and "its". This is a confusing pattern for the learner. In Spanish there is both a singular and plural possessive pronoun which agrees in number and gender NOT with the possessor but with the item(s) referred to (33-36):

33. El libro de Juan = el suyo (his singular, masculine)

34. Los libros de Juan = los suyos (his plural, masculine)

35. La clase de Juan = la suya (his singular, feminine)

36. Las clases de Juan = las suyas (his plural, feminine)

Therefore, the Spanish speaking student may treat the "s" on the possessive pronouns ("hers", "yours", and "ours") as the plural equivalent of those in her/his language items (see #33 & 35). They will assume that if the item referred to is singular, the correct forms would have no final "s" and therefore they would be: "her", "your" and "our" (37). If the item referred to is plural, then the correct forms would end in "s": "hers", "yours", "ours", and "mines" (38 & 39).

37. * "She has one book. It is her." for "It is hers."

38. "She has two books. They are hers."

39. * "I have two books. They are mines." for "They are mine."

* * *

PREPOSITIONS

English prepositions will not always result in difficulties to the Hispanic student because they do exist in Spanish, but the choice of the correct preposition does present problems. Just a few will be mentioned here. There are many details which will be left out in the explanation which follows.

First, one must distinguish the semantic and/or grammatical function for which prepositions are used in English. Prepositions can be used semantically to convey TEMPORAL and SPATIAL meaning. For example, they are used to mark: position (40 &41); location (42); direction (43 & 44); destination (45); a date (46); the time of day (47); predicted span of time (48); duration of time (49); and other numerous relationships.

40. "The picture is on the wall."

41. "The man is in the school."

42. "The boy is at school."

43. "I'm going to Puebla."

44. "He just came from church."

45. "They're leaving for Moscow."

46. "I'll see you on July 19th."

47. "I'll see you at 1:00."

48. "They'll leave in 5 minutes."

49. "He was here for ten years."

Hispanic students make mistakes when they select the incorrect preposition to mark these relationships (50-53) or when Spanish does not distinguish a relationship which English does. For example, Spanish has only one word for what is expressed in English by "in", "on", and "at". Therefore, errors like those in (50-53) are common.

50. * "I am going for New York." for "I am going to New York."

51. * "The child is on the car." for "The child is in the car."

52. * "The child is in home." for "The child is at home."

53. * "The photo is in the wall." for "The photo is on the wall."

Prepositions are also used in English to mark grammatical relationships such as the following: the infinitive--"to" (54), the passive-- "by" (55); and the indirect object-- "to" (56). In some cases a change in sentence word order results in the deletion of the indirect object preposition (57). Spanish speakers often erroneously keep the preposition "to" because they do not understand this syntactic rule (58).

54. "I love to dance."

55. "The cat was hit by the train."

56. "He gave the book to Paul."

57. "He gave Paul the book."

58. * "He gave to Paul the book." for "He gave Paul the book."

Several common errors can be found in the use or abuse of infinitives. When two content verbs occur in sequence in English, the second one must be either a participle = "verb + ing" or an infinitive = "to + verb". The choice is inherently determined by the first verb. Certain verbs, e.g. "like" can follow either of these patterns (59) while other verbs, e.g. "want" and "enjoy" are restricted to only one of the patterns (60 & 61). The Spanish-speaking student must again learn to memorize which verbs belong in which lists. Until they do, they produce errors like (62). When two verbs found in a sequence consist of a modal ("can", "could", "would", "should", "must", "have to", etc.) and one or more other verbs, NO infinitive marking is permitted in English. Spanish-speakers frequently insert a "to" where it is not permitted (63 & 64).

59. "I like to sing." or "I like singing that song."

60. "I want to sing. ("I want singing." not permitted)

61. "I enjoy singing. ("I enjoy to sing." not permitted)

62. * "We enjoy to go to New York." for "We enjoy going...."

63. * "He can to play the guitar." for "He can play the car."

64. * "I must to go." for "I must go."

In English grammatical meaning is also conveyed through prepositions. The preposition "for" is used to mark a benefactive relationship (65), comparison (66), and purpose (67).

65. "He opened the door for them."

66. "He seems old for a young person."

67. "I came for my book."

In addition, Spanish speakers will typically overuse the preposition "to" by placing it before direct objects which refer to people (68 & 69), personified things, animals, and geographical names (70) since this is required in Spanish.

68. * "Did the man see to the boy?" for "Did the man see the boy?"

69. * "I phoned to Mary." for "I phoned Mary."

70. * "He visited to Paris." for "He visited Paris.

Prepositions also function as particles to verbs in English (72 & 73). We refer to such verbs as "two-word verbs". These are verbs are quite common in colloquial speech and often have more than one meaning (74-76). Sometimes these verbs also become used as nouns in English (77 & 78 which complicates matters more for the learner. Since two-word verbs historically developed from the Germanic roots of English, they are not found in Latin-based languages like Spanish.

72. "in" ..... "Come in" or "Go in" or "Turn in"

73. "out" ..... "Come out" or "Get out" or "Turn out"

74. "make out" = see clearly "I can't make out his face."

75. = write "Make out a check for that."

76. " = kiss & hug "The couple made out all night."

77. "sit in" (verb) "He sat in on the class."

78. "sit in" (noun) "The students had a sit in to protest a rule."

Spanish-speakers are sometimes fooled by two-word verbs in English because they look for meaning in the main verb only when in fact the main verb + the particple (preposition) is one whole meaning which is equal to more than the sum of its parts. That is to say, it is often difficult to know the meaning of a two-word verb by knowing the meaning of each part and adding them together. Look at (79) & (80). The meaning for (79) is impossible to infer by adding together the meaning of the two words of the verb.

79. "take up" = "decide" "We'll take the matter up tomorrow."

80. "take up" = "collect" "Please take up the papers."

Spanish-speaking students must be taught to treat the two-word verb as one verb, even though the parts may occasionally be separated. Some two-word verbs must be separated if a noun is involved (81) and others may optionally be kept together or separate (82). However, ALL two-word verbs MUST BE separated when they have an object pronoun (83 & 84). Since there is no way to predict which category a specific two-verb belongs to, the Spanish speaker must rely on memorization only. The most common error the Spanish-speaking person makes is the misplacement of the object pronoun (85). Unforunately, this can convey a totally different meaning and get the speaker in hot water as the different meanings in (86)& (87) illustrate.

81. "get up" "Get the boy up." ("Get up the boy." not permitted)

82. "turn off" "Turn the light off." or "Turn off the light."

83. "him" "Get him up."

84. "it" "Turn it off.

85. * "Turn on her." for "Turn her on."

86. "Turn on her" = "attack or betray her"

vs.

87. "Turn her on" = "Get her excited sexually"

* * *

ADJECTIVES

Beginners in English often forget to place adjectives before the noun--the opposite of the normal Spanish order. They produce sentences like (88):

88. * "Where is the book blue?" for "Where is the blue book."

Do not be surprised if Hispanic students occasionally pluralize adjectives, although for some reason this is rare even in beginners. In Spanish all adjectives must agree in number and gender with the nouns to which they refer.

Historically English developed two ways of conveying the comparative. One way is derived from Latin and is similar to how comparatives are formed in Spanish (89). The other way came from German and is accomplished through a suffix (90). The number of syllables in a given adjective usually determines which of these ways the comparative must be formed in English. The learner of English must learn that one syllable words and two-syllable words ending in "y" use the suffix "-er" to form the comparative as in example (91). Until they learn this rule, they will continue to apply the Spanish rule erroneously to all adjectives (92).

89. "They are more intelligent than him."

90. "They are nicer than him."

91. "She seems happier than you."

93. * "He is more big." for "He is bigger."

* * *

ADVERBS

The most typical problem Hispanic students have with adverbs in English is their order. Spanish speaking students often place adverbs immediately after the verb, making the sentence sound unnatural to English speakers (94)

94. * "He speaks very well English." for "He speaks English very well."

* * *

VERBS

Grammatical meaning in the English verbal system is marked by word order whereas in the Spanish verbal system it is marked by a complicated system of inflections (suffixes). English verbs have few inflections but even these give the learner problem. It is common to hear even an intermediate level learner of English leaving off the third person singular [s] on the present tense verb (95).

95. * "She sing a lot." for "She sings a lot."

The biggest problem which Spanish speakers encounter in English verbs is the formation of negatives and questions in the present and past tense. The Hispanic student encounters a totally different way of forming negatives and questions. She/he must learn how to use the correct form of the auxiliary DO with all verbs (96 & 97) EXCEPT the main verb BE (98 & 99).

96. "I do not like to sing."

97. "Do you like to sing?"

98. "He is not a singer."

99. "Is he a singer?"

The first error pattern we find among beginners of English is the total lack of DO in negatives and questions as in (100 & 101).

100. * "I no practice religion." for "I do not practice religion."

101. * "You go home at night?" for "Do you go home at night?"

Once the learners get the idea that they must use DO to mark negatives and questions, then they switch to the other extreme and over-mark verbs for past tense as in (102) and (103) in which both DO and the main verb "eat" and "go" respectively are in the past tense .

102. * "He did not ate the apple." for "He did not eat the apple."

103. * "Why did he went?" for "Why did he go?"

They also must learn NOT to use DO when the main verb is a form of BE (104).

104. * "Do they be happy?" for "Are they happy?"

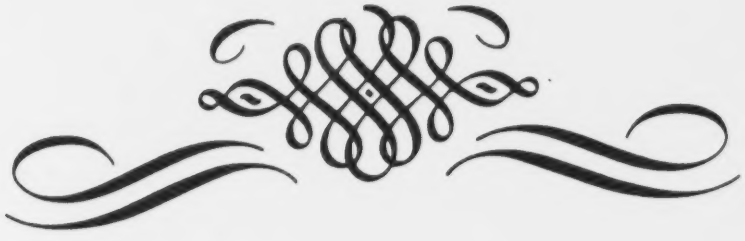
Occasionally, they use double negatives and construct sentences that sound just like non-Standard speakers of English (105).

105. * "My four years I spend there I did not learn nothing."

There are many semantic complications involving verbs which would require an in-depth analysis were we to take them up here. That is left for another manual.

* * *

Many other interesting conflicts exist between the system of Spanish and that of English. Keep your eyes and ears open and they will appear to you as you work with the limited-English proficient Hispanic student.



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APPENDIX A: FALSE COGNATES

English	Spanish		meaning
advise	avisar	=	"warn"
	aconsejar	=	"advise"
assist	assistir	=	"to attend" (a class)
	ayudar	=	" assist"
bomber	bombero	=	"fireman"
	bombadero	=	"bomber"
capacity	capacitación	=	"training"
	capacidad	=	"capacity"
car	carro	=	"car"
	coche	=	"two-wheeled cart"
card	carta	=	"letter"
	tarjeta	=	"card"
college	colegio	=	"high school"
	universidad	=	"college"
compromise	compromiso	=	"commitment"
	acuerdo	=	"compromise; agreement"
educated	educado	=	"to be polite"
	preparado	=	"educated"
fume	fumar	=	"to smoke"
	humo	=	"fumes"
grocery	grosería	=	"rude remark"
	supermercado	=	"grocery"
lavatory	laboratorio	=	"lab"
	lavabo	=	"lavatory"
lecture	lectura	=	"reading"
	conferencia	=	"lecture or meeting"
	encuentro	=	"conference or meeting"

library	librería	=	"bookstore"
	biblioteca	=	"library"
molest	molestar	=	"bother"
	violar	=	"rape"
place	plaza	=	"village square or space"
	lugar	=	"place"
poor (quality)	pobre	=	"poor" (no money)
	malo	=	"poor quality"
present	presente	=	"present/here"
	regalo	=	"present or gift"
quiet	quieto	=	"still"
	tranquilo	=	"quiet"
quit	quitar	=	"remove or take away"
	dejar	=	"quit"
reunion	reunión	=	"meeting or reunion"
soap	sopa	=	"soup"
	sabón	=	"soap"
solitary	solitario	=	"lonely"
	solo	=	"solitary or alone"
sympathetic	simpático	=	"kind or friendly"
	compasivo	=	"sympathetic"
translate	transladar	=	"move"
	traducir	=	"translate"
useful	uso	=	"use"
	útil	=	"useful"

APPENDIX B: COMMON GRAMMATICAL ERRORS

Grammatical Error	Example
NOUNS:	
- failure to add "s"	* "four dog..."
- irregular plurals	* "The mans (men).." * "Many persons (people).." * "Three peoples were there."
- wrong itemizer	* "..a box of milk"
- definite article used with non-countable (abstract) nouns	* "The honesty is a good quality."
- definite article used with titles, streets, and body parts	* "The Mr. Black is in France." * "They live on the Rose Street." * "She washed the hands."
- omission of indefinite article before profession, political party	* "He is Spaniard." * "I am Democrat."
PRONOUNS:	
- ommission of subject pronouns	* "Is happy?" "Is good day."
- incorrect pronoun reference (object, possessive adj.) & possessive pronoun)	* "He's thinking for she's." * "It's she book." * "The book is her."
PREPOSITIONS:	
- incorrect preposition chosen	* "I'm going for New York." * "The child is in the bike." * "I am in home."

- infinitive rather than participle following sequential verb	* "He enjoys to sing."
- participle rather than infinitive following sequential verb	* "I want singing the song."
- indirect object use of "to" when not permitted	* "He gave to Paul the gift."
- incorrect use of "to" after modals (e.g."can", "must", "should", "could")	* "He can to catch the train." * "I must to go."
- personal direct objects preceded by "to"	* "I phoned to Mary." * "He visited to Paris."
- failure to separate two-word verb when object noun is involved	* "He got up the boy."
- failure to separate two-word verb where pronoun is involved	* "Turn off it." * "Take off it."
- communicating erroneous message by separating two-word verb	* "Turn on her."

ADJECTIVES:

- incorrect order with nouns	* "Where is the book blue?"
- incorrect comparative form	* "Is more big."

ADVERBS:

- wrong order in sentence	* "He speaks very well English"

VERBS:

- lack of 3rd person singular present tense marker--"s"	* "She sing a lot."
- lack of DO form in negative and question	* "He no go home." * "You go home?

- double marking of tense in negatives & questions	* "Why did he went?" * "He did not ate the apple."
- use of DO form when main verb is BE	* "Do they be happy?"
- double negatives	* "My four years I spend there I did not learn nothing."

APPENDIX C: USEFUL SPANISH TERMS

Buenos días. /Bweh'-nohs dee'-ahs/	Good morning./Good day.
Buenas tardes. /Bweh'-nahs tahr'-dehs/	Good afternoon.
Buenas noches. /Bweh'-nahs noh'-chehs/	
Hola. /oh-la/	Hello.
¿Cómo está? /Koh-moh-eh-stah'/	How are you?
¿Qué tal? /Keh-tal'/	How's it going?
Bien, gracias. ¿Y Usted? /Byehn grah'-syahs. Eee oos-tehd'/	Fine thanks. And you?
Hasta mañana. /Ah'-stah mah-nyah'-nah/	I'll see you tomorrow.
Hasta luego. /Ah'-stah lweh'-goh/	See you later.
Hasta la vista. /Ah'-stah la vee'-stah/	" " "
Dispénseme. /Dee-spehn'-seh-meh/	Excuse me.
Perdone. /Pehr-doh'-neh/	Pardon me.
Lo siento mucho. /Loh syehn'-toh moo'-choh/	I'm very sorry.
No hay de qué. /Noh ah'-ee deh keh/	Don't mention it
De nada. /Deh nah'-dah/	Don't mention it.
Sí. /Seeh'/ No. /Noh/ Quizás /Keeh'-sahs/	Yes. No. Perhaps
Por favor. /Pohr' fa-bor'/	Please.
¿Cómo se llama? /Koh'-moh seh lyah'-mah/	What is your name?
Me llamo... /Meh lyah'-moh/	My name is...
¿Cómo se llama ella? /Koh'-moh seh lyah'-mah elyah/	What is her name?
Yo no sé. /Yoh noh seh/	I don't know.
Me llamo Señora xxx /Meh lyah'-moh seh-nyo'-rah/	My name is Mrs. xxx
Señorita xxx / " " " seh-nyo-ri'-ta/	My name is Miss xxx
Señor xxx / " " " seh-nyohr'/	My name is Mr. xxx

Soy su profesora. /Sohy soo proh-feh-so'-rah/	I'm your teacher. (female)
No hablo mucho español. /Noh ab'-loh moo'-choh es-pahn'-yol/	I don't speak much Spanish.
¿Dónde vive? /Dohn'-deh vee'-veh /	Where do you live?
¿Adónde va? /Ah-dohn'-deh va'/	Where are you going?
¿De qué país es? /Dey key pah-ees' es/	What country are you from?
¿Entiende usted? /Ehn-tyehn'-deh oos-tehd/	Do you understand?
Sí, entiendo. /See ehn-tyehn'-doh/	Yes. I understand.
No, no entiendo. /Noh, noh ehn-tyehn'-doh/	No. I don't understand.
Entiendo un poco. /Ehn-tyehn'doh oon poh'-koh/	I understand a little.
Hable más despacio, por favor. /Ah'-bleh mahs dehs-pah'-syoh, pohr fah-vohr'/	Speak slower, please.
Repita, por favor. /Reh-pee'-tah, pohr fah-vohr'	Repeat, please.
¿Cómo se dice eso en español? /Koh'-moh seh dee'-seh eh'-soh ehn eh-spah-hyohl/	How do you say that in Spanish?
¿Qué significa eso? /Keh seeg-nee-fee'-kah eh'-soh/	What does that mean?
Usted tiene razon. /Oos-tehd' tyeh-neh rah-sohn'/	You are right.
Usted no tiene razon. /" noh " " /	You are wrong.
Dígame..../Dee'-gah-meh/	Tell me.
Tráigame /Trah'-ee-gah-meh	Bring me...
Deme /Deh'-meh/	Give me
Le gusta xxx /Leh goos'-tah/	Do you like xxx?
¿Terminó? /Tehr-mee-noh'/	Have you finished?
¿Qué necesita? /Keh neh-seh-see'-tah/	What do you need?
¿Tiene una pregunta? /Tyeh'-nay ooh-nah preh-goon-tah/	Do you have a question?
¿Está enfermo? /Eh-stah' ehn-fehr'-moh/	Are you sick?

CLASSROOM COMMANDS:

Escribe su nombre aquí. /Ehs-kree'-beh soo nohm'-breh a-kee'/ Write your name here.

su número de teléfono /noo'-meh-roh deh telefonoh/ ...telephone number

su dirreción /soo dee-rek'-ksyohn/ ... address

Mire. /Mee'-reh/ Look.

Espere. /Es-peh'-reh/ Wait.

Siéntese /See-ehn'-teh-seh/ Sit down.

Abre su libro. /Ah'-breh soo lee'-broh/ Open you book.

Cierre su libro. /See-ehr'-reh soo lee'-broh/ Close your book.

Venga aca. /Vehn'-gah ah-kah'/ Come here.

Dese prisa. /Deh'-seh pree'-sah/ Hurry up.

Vuelva pronto. /Vwehl'-vah prohn'-toh/ Come back quickly.

Señale. /Seh-nyah'-leh/ Show/point to...

Vaya a la pizarra. /Vah'-yah ah lah pee-sah'-rah/ Go to the blackboard.

No hable. /Noh ahb'-leh/ Don't speak.

Tenga cuidado. /Tehn'-gah kwee-dah'-doh/ Be careful.

Pida permiso. /Pee'-dah per-mee'-soh/ Ask for permission.

Eso no se permite aquí. /Eh'-soh noh seh pehr-mee'-teh ah-kee'/ That is not permitted here

cero	/seh'-roh/	Zero	
uno	/oo'-noh/	one	
dos	/dohs/	two	
tres	/trehs/	three	
cuatro	/kwah'-troh	four	
cinco	/seen'-koh/	five	
seís	'seh'-ees'	six	
siete	/syeh'-teh'	seven	
ocho	/oh'-choh/	eight	
nueve	/nweh'-veh/	nine	
diez	/dyehs/	ten	
veinte	/veh'-een-teh/	twenth	
treinta	/treh'-een-tah/	thirty	
ciento	/syehn'-toh/	one-hundred	

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